





THE CRIMEA.

SIMPHEROPOL, FROM THE EAST.

THE CRIMEA:

ITS TOWNS, INHABITANTS,

AND

SOCIAL CUSTOMS.

BY A LADY,

RESIDENT NEAR THE ALMA.

LONDON:

PARTRIDGE, OAKEY, AND CO.,

EDINBURGH: SHEPHERD AND ELLIOTT.

1855.

246.6.64.

LONDON:
PRINTED AT THE "CHRISTIAN TIMES" OFFICE,
121, FLEET STREET.



INTRODUCTION.

THE Author of this little Book had no intention of ever bringing herself thus before the public; otherwise, her long residence in the Crimea, and her many opportunities of acquiring information, would have enabled her to write a much larger volume. But the earnest request of a large circle of friends and acquaintances, many of whom are now interested in that country, induced her to attempt the following little sketch. During a period of nine years the author resided in different parts of the Crimea, and travelled repeatedly over almost the whole of the Peninsula, so that she is well acquainted

with it; while her position in society there, and her knowledge of the different languages, enabled her to hold intercourse with the various classes of its inhabitants.

This little Book, then, contains the observations of an inhabitant, and not those of a hasty traveller through the country, and may consequently be found to want the freshness of first impression; but if it serve to give an idea of that country, which has emerged again from comparative oblivion, the Author's object in publishing it will be attained.

LONDON, FEBRUARY, 1855.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.	
	AGE
Contrast between the North and South-Italy of	
Russia—Tartar Villages—Vines—Yalta—Orianda	
—Aloupka—Singular Road—Magaratch—Yourzouf	
—Aloushta	_1
CHAPTER II.	
Russian Driver - Village of Dimirdji - Taushan	
Bazaar—The Salghir—Russian Country-house—	
Zakouska - Dinner - Village - Visit to a Serf's	
Dwelling-Condition of Serfs-Dress of the Pea-	
sants—Superstition—Want of Labourers	18
CHAPTER III.	
Simpheropol—Tartar Part of the Town—Jews and	
Greeks-Modern Part - Boulevard - Cathedral -	
Pictures—Music—Greek Burial Service—Marriage	
Ceremony—Twelfth-day—Blessing the Waters—	
Mosques-Churches-Jewish Synagogue-Assem-	
bly-rooms—Court-house—Hospitals—Market-place	
-Winter Amusements-Races-Cemeteries	33
CHAPTER IV.	
Banks of the Alma - Orchards and Vineyards -	
Baghtché Sarai-Palace of the Khans-Fountains-	
Harem-Mosque-Tartar Houses-Tartar Women	
-Dervishes-Tartar Repast-Monastery-Valley	
of Jehoshaphat-Tchoufout Kali-Karaite Jews-	



50

	PAG
CHAPTER V.	
Gipsies—Valley of Belbek—Roads—Vultures and	
Eagles — Tchernaya — Approach to Sevastopol —	
Quay-Terraces-Fort Nicholas-Admiralty-As-	
sembly-rooms — Cathedral — Theatre — Library —	
Hulks-Prisoners' Barracks-Military Hospital-	
Docks-Inkerman-Valley of Oashakoff-Ancient	
Chersonese-Monastery of St. George-Balaclava	
-Tchergona-Mangoup Kalé-Karolez	68
CHAPTER VI.	
Zouia—Neusatz—Friedenthal—Rosenthal—German	
Colonists-Cultivation of the Potato-Sly Mode of	
Stealing them-Kara-sou Bazaar-Corn Market-	
Eski Krim—Palace of the Khans—Colony of Bul-	
garians-Kaffa-Genoese Fortress-Fountain-La-	
zaretto-Bathing-houses-Soudagh-Kertch	83
CHAPTER VII.	
Eupatoria—Saak- Mud Baths—The Steppe—Mirage	
— Columns of Dust — Tartar Robber — Majars —	
Tartar Villages-Armanskoi Bazaar-Sivash, or	
Putrid Sea—Salt Lakes—Perekop	98
CHAPTER VIII.	
Crimean Climate-Severity of Winter-Heat of Sum-	
mer-Prevalence of Ague-Value of Quinine-	
Small-pox Common—Uncertainty of Crops—Tartar	
Plough—Primitive Harrow—Rotation of Crops—	
Melon Garden-Water-Melon-Camels-Horses-	
Native Cattle—Sheep—Forests	113
CHAPTER IX.	
Deer Shooting-Abundance of Game-Tartar Mode	
of Taking Quails-Birds of Prey-Wolves and	
Foxes—Hamster — Birds — Locusts — Devastation	
caused by them-Starlings-Tradition about them	
-Destructive Caterpillars-Want of Capital the	
Great Obstacle to Improvement 1	30

THE CRIMEA.

CHAPTER I.

CONTRAST BETWEEN THE NORTH AND SOUTH—ITALY OF RUSSIA—TARTAR VILLAGES—VINES—YALTA—ORIANDA—ALOUPKA—SINGULAR ROAD—MAGARATCH—YOURZOUF—ALOUSHTA.

NIGHT and day scarcely stand in more distinct antagonism to each other, than do the northern and southern parts of the Crimea;—the northern consisting of a series of plains and steppes; while, as if to balance this continuity of flatness and desolation, Nature seems to have lavished all her grandeur and beauty on the southern part. Between the northern and southern parts, there is an intermediate district, which somewhat combines the characteristics of both, and comprises numerous valleys, watered by the rivers which flow to the north of the mountains.

The southern, or highland part, to which I have alluded, consists of a noble range of mountains, that slope, with magnificent variety of rock and wood, to the very shores of the sea, to which they run parallel nearly the whole breadth of the peninsula. This mountain range rises from the sea at Cape Aiza, and keeps gradually ascending, till, in the lofty Tchatir Dagh, it attains the height of five thousand feet above the level of the sea, whence it extends, decreasing in height and grandeur, to the valley of Soudagh.

The general features of this range are bold crags and ravines, covered with never-ending forests of pine and oak, and which form a striking contrast to the splendid walnut, chesnut, mulberry, and cypress trees, which vie with one another in beauty, lower down towards the sea. As this chain of mountains forms a screen against the biting winds from the north, the climate is much milder here than on the other side; and although an occasional winter's frost destroys many of the plants which have remained unharmed for years, yet the rhododendron, the magnolia, and many delicate plants, may be seen of large size in the open air.

A good carriage-road runs along the side of this mountain range as far east as Aloushta, on an average about two thousand feet above the level of the sea. Below this road is that part of the Crimea called the Italy of Russia.

From its beautiful scenery and delightful cli-

mate, this district has become the favourite resort of the Russian nobility during the summer season, many of whom possess handsome villas, varying in style and magnificence, and wanting nothing that riches and art can do, to render nature still more levely. By a traveller, many beautiful spots remain unnoticed, from the undulating nature of the country, and are, some of them, so difficult of access, that it is not uncommon for the proprietors to be obliged to leave their carriages on the high road, themselves to trudge down on foot, while their bags, packages, pillows, and other articles of a Russian's travelling paraphernalia, are carried by their numerous retinue of attendants. I have spent many months at a time at several of these villas, and used to wander, sometimes on foot, sometimes on horseback, into nooks and corners whose beauties could be only discovered when thus visited.

In fine contrast with these charming abodes, Tartar villages are seen perched here and there, all along the south coast. The Tartar huts here are usually built against the side of a hill, so that the back wall of the hut is formed by the hill itself. This renders them very warm, and less affected than they would otherwise be by the fearful gusts of

wind which occasionally rush through the ravines from the mountains, venting their fury on everything that offers any resistance. The roofs, which are flat and covered with earth, project beyond the walls, and are supported by wooden pillars, forming a rude verandah, as a protection against the heat of the sun. During the fine summer nights, the Tartars sleep on these flat roofs, many of which are on a level with the high road, from which they are scarcely distinguishable,—so that, passing through some of these villages, one might mistake, and ride or drive into the middle of a family group, at the risk of breaking one's neck, or of falling through into the house below.

I was for some time puzzled to think what was contained in certain huge coarse baskets, raised upon poles, about a yard from the ground, and plastered over with mud, which I perceived as a regular attendant upon every Tartar dwelling; and upon making inquiry, I was told that they were filled with wheat, and were so raised from the ground to prevent the inroads of mice and other such depredators. The hay for the use of their cattle during winter they also stow away in rather a peculiar manner,—by piling it up, like immense nests, on the trunks and branches of the large trees. It is very amusing, you may believe,

to chat with the inhabitants, whose knowledge seldom extends beyond the bounds of their village or its immediate neighbourhood. As a specimen of their unsophisticated state, I may mention that on one occasion, while surrounded by ten or a dozen admiring girls, who touched and felt with wonder everything I had on, I happened to pull off my glove, which was immediately seized by one of them and handed round for inspection; and so greatly were they amused and delighted with the curious skin which I could take off and put on at pleasure, that I left them the pair to keep as a curiosity.

The indolence so proverbial among Eastern nations is well exemplified here, in the groups of idle men, seated (as Tartars always contrive to sit) upon their heels, smoking their chibouks with most enviable indifference to everything that may happen in the world at large. They generally seek the shade of a huge walnut tree, whose produce, amounting sometimes to eighty or a hundred thousand nuts, forms the chief means of subsistence to a whole family. Your gipsies are but a poor attempt at the picturesque, compared with these Tartars and their habitations.

The soil here is particularly suited to the cultivation of the vine, and from its warm, sunny

exposure, the wine is equal in strength and quality to that of the South of France. Many of the proprietors have been at great pains and expense in procuring the best sorts of vines from Spain, France, and the Rhine, and also have resident upon their properties vine-dressers from different countries where wine is made. The vines are kept low, like raspberry bushes, and yield a very abundant crop, which is allowed to ripen thoroughly, even sometimes to dry a little, before the grapes are gathered; thereby making a rich, sweet wine, more like a cordial.

I had heard much of the beauty of the vine, and had pictured to myself quite a fairy scene at vintage time; but, alas! that illusion has all vanished since I beheld the groups of little Tartar boys, with their dirty hands handling those delicious bunches which hung so temptingly; nor shall I ever forget with what feelings of disgust I tasted the dirty, muddy-looking stuff which issued from the press.

The fig tree, the pomegranate with its showy scarlet blossoms, and the lively little caper bush, are everywhere to be seen. Olive groves also are here and there to be met with; but they are not widely cultivated, as the ground is more profitably laid out in vineyards.

From the beginning of June to the middle of September, the thermometer ranges from 85° to 100° Fahrenheit, in the shade. The nights also are warm and balmy. For weeks, even sometimes for months, there is not a drop of rain; but when an occasional thunder-storm bursts on the mountains, the hundreds of little streams, which at ordinary times you may step across, become swollen to ten times their usual bulk, and, from the rapidity of the descent, carry all before them. From the extreme dryness of the climate, during the summer season, these little streamlets are quite necessary for the cultivation of tobacco and all the culinary vegetables; consequently, they are divided and subdivided among all the proprietors through whose lands they flow. A sudden overflow of their banks does, you may believe, much mischief; but it occasions often a most serious evil, by undermining the bridges by which the high road is carried across these streams, rendering them impassable, and thus stopping for a time the communication along the coast.

The absence of tide in the Black Sea gives a lake-like margin to the undulating coast, which is in general rocky, with a gravelly beach; but here and there a little sandy bay invites the lovers of the sea to take a dip in its waters.

Yalta, the only town of any importance along the whole south coast, in the centre of which it is situated, lies close to the sea-shore, at the end of a large fertile valley; but though it is called a town, in point of size it is a mere village. It is too open towards the sea to be a safe harbour for ships; and the country around being too difficult to allow of any sort of trade by land, it serves merely as a post and market-town to its own inhabitants, and to those of the adjoining hills and valleys. It contains one large inn, so ill furnished, and so ill supplied with even the common comforts of every-day life, that few people make any stay there. It is, however, the only inn (with the exception of a small one at Aloupka) between Simpheropol and Sevastopol; and woe betide the unfortunate traveller whose thirst for sight-seeing makes him forget to provide himself, before starting, with a pillow, a coverlet, bread, tea, coffee, sugar, or any other article he may think indispensable to his comfort. I paid for this experience, having been obliged to live for two days on coarse bread, bad coffee, and a few eggs which the Tartar hens were kind enough to lay for my benefit.

Between the months of March and November, a steamer plies between Odessa and Kertch,

touching at various ports in the Crimea in passing to and fro. These are the gala days at Yalta, when all who can, from far and near, assemble there to collect gossip for the week, and to criticise those who arrive.

From the difficulty of transport into the interior of the country, the wines of the south coast were scarcely known in Russia until, a few years ago, an enterprising individual took a cargo from Yalta to St. Petersburg, round by the Mediterranean and the Baltic, which, in spite of a tedious voyage, leaky barrels, and bad management in the care of the wine, turned out to be a good speculation.

Leaving Yalta, the coast-road rises again, and continues its meandering course along the side of the hills, through a rich and beautiful country. Not far from the town is Livadia, the residence of Count Pototsky, with its beautiful gardens and refreshing fountains; and, further on, the Empress's Palace Orianda is seen nestling below, among rocks and wooded hills of every variety of shape and size. Indeed, at every turn new beauties open to view, and the huge masses of rock which overhang the road, make the traveller pass in fear and trembling.

Aloupka, the seat of Prince Woronzoff, stands

in solemn grandeur; and the sight of it, in the distance, somewhat reminds one of home; but, on approaching nearer, its green granite walls, its orange and myrtle groves, and its clusters of dark cypresses, tell of a warmer sun than we are favoured with in dear Old England.

The house is built in a castellated style, with numerous turrets, and is laid out to accommodate an immense number of visitors. There is an extensive library, and a large hall in the style of the Moorish Alhambra. Exotic plants, of all kinds, fill the halls and covered galleries, making it really like fairy-land. Terraces and shady walks lead down to the sea, where a neat little pavilion for the accommodation of bathers has recently been built. Above the house is a garden, unique of its kind, combining within its limits grottoes, caverns, the crater of an extinct volcano, and huge grotesquely-shaped masses of rock, interspersed with fountains, cascades, artificial ponds, beds of flowers, and numerous shady walks and arbours. When the Count retreats to this, his favourite residence, to rest from his labours at the Caucasus, he assembles a large party of friends at Aloupka, who spend the day very pleasantly in roaming about the gardens, or driving in the neighbourhood; while the evenings are usually

spent in dancing, to the music of a large band of musicians, who are always in attendance.

The green-coloured granite of which this castle is built, is very plentiful all along the coast; and where there are enclosures, which is not a common thing, they are made of huge blocks of it piled one upon another. Even the road is mended with it.

This road, to which I have so often alluded, is now continued along the slope of the mountain range to nearly the most westerly point of the Crimea, where, by a zig-zag ascent, the hills are crossed; and the traveller, after passing through the valley of Baidar, and near the Greek colony of Balaclava, reaches the southern stronghold of Russia, Sevastopol. But the line of communication was not till within the last few years so commodious; for the tourist, having travelled in comparative comfort to some few miles west of Aloupka, found himself brought to a halt by a perpendicular rock standing like a dropped portcullis right across his path. On looking to his right, however, he would find a way of egress that must have astonished him still more; for there stands the mountain, cleft into something like a perpendicular ascent, called the Merdven, or Staircase, and his guide would have coolly

pointed to him to turn his horse up that uninviting pass.

This staircase, about three hundred feet in height, consists of steps from one to two feet high, running in short zig-zags up the ravine; and to ascend it on horseback is a feat that might have done credit to Ducrow. It is highly picturesque, being shaded by trees, whose stems interweave with each other in all sorts of fantastic shapes; and the tourist would enjoy his adventure doubtless all the more, by considering that if his horse lost footing at any one part, he would probably roll down the ravine and be dashed to pieces.

Returning again to Yalta, and driving eastward, we pass Massandra, another large and beautiful property belonging to Prince Woronzoff, and, close to it, the numerous vineyards and more humble-looking dwellings of the proprietors of Magaratch.

At the commencement of the cultivation of the vine on the south coast, the Government gave grants of land at Magaratch, upon the condition of planting so many thousand vines in the course of the term of five years; the nonfulfilment of which incurred the forfeiture of the land. Here, also at Nikita, the Government has established a botanical garden, where the best kinds of fruit, forest, and other trees, as well as plants of all

kinds, may be bought; and where young men are trained to be gardeners. I was particularly struck here with the number of trees which flower in the early part of summer, such as the Judas tree, the pink and white acacias, and many others, the names of which I do not know also with the tea plant, and some cork trees; the latter of a good thickness. The whole establishment is under the superintendence of a Livonian gentleman who resides there.

Further on, near the sea-shore, at the little village of Yourzouf, are the ruins of an old fortress, in a commanding situation, overlooking the sea. Scorpions of small size are sometimes found among the ruins. I may mention, by the way, that serpents are numerous everywhere in the Crimea, and many of them measure five and six feet in length; but there are only two species of which the bite is venemous, though not fatal, and these are fortunately rarely to be met with. Another disgusting reptile, which I have only seen on the south coast, is the scolopendra. It is from six to eight inches long, with short, thick legs, and of a greenish-yellow colour. It penetrates into houses, sometimes even into beds, and bites its victims very severely. But the most venemous of all

these creatures is the tarantula, which abounds everywhere, and seems to have established its head-quarters in the valley of Soudagh, or at Chersonese, in the neighbourhood of Sevastopol. It is not uncommon for country people to keep a tarantula in a small bottle of oil, to use as an antidote against its bite, which is sometimes fatal. not know if there is really any virtue in the oil, but I have known all bad effects prevented by applying to the wounded part a piece of burning tinder, which was held to it till it was completely cauterised. It is said that sheep eat the tarantula, and that they will not come near a sheepskin; so that the Tartars or Russians who sleep in the open air, generally spread out and sleep upon their sheepskin coat, as a preservative against them.

In the neighbourhood of Yourzouf, a small Greek fishery is established; but as the fishermen place their nets on stakes close to the shore, and do not go out to sea, their success is very variable. They make here a kind of caviare, from the roe of the grey mullet, which, though quite different from that so much in repute, made from the roe of the sturgeon, is very palatable.

A number of curious rocks jut out into the sea near this place, full of caves and grottoes;

some of them, quite separate from the land, are covered with the wild fig tree, and are inhabited only by sea-fowl. When residing in the neighbourhood, some friends and I engaged the Greek fishermen, to take us in their boat to visit some of these grottoes, where the pirates are said to have lived concealed, and where sea-spirits are now supposed to dwell. We rowed into one or two of them, but the hollow sound of the waves dashing against the rocks, the splashing of the oars, and the gruff voices of the sailors as they spoke to one another, made me, at least, feel no regret at leaving these marine chambers, even although our curiosity had not been gratified by a sight of some of the sea-monsters. The Greeks have a peculiar way of singing through the nose, and to our great amusement, immediately on leaving the caves, our sailors began one of their nasal ballads, and favoured us with one after another, until we reached the shore.

A little further still, Aiou Dagh, or the Bear Mountain (so called from its supposed resemblance to a bear), projects into the sea, near the summit of which are some ruins, supposed to be those of a convent. It was from this hill that the granite which was used for the docks and quay at Sevastopol was quarried.



Continuing our course eastward, through apparently never-ending vineyards and gardens, we reach the little village of Aloushta, prettily situated at the end of a valley on the sea-shore. It consists of only a few Tartar huts, and the ruins of an ancient fortress; but the neat white houses, with their pillared verandahs, of the proprietors of vineyards, dotted all about the suburbs, produce a pleasing relief to the rich and luxuriant foliage all around. There was formerly a good post-house at Aloushta; but about ten years ago, it was burnt to the ground, and has not since been rebuilt. Being on one occasion overtaken here by the darkness of the night, we sought shelter at a small halting-place for carts and their drivers; and finding a small room, with earthen floor, containing two rude sofas and a table unoccupied, we took possession, and after refreshing ourselves with a cup of tea, and other delicacies which our provision basket afforded, we laid ourselves down on the sofas to sleep till morning. In spite of mosquitos and innumerable hosts of unwelcome little visitors, which everywhere abound in the Crimea-and to the bites of which, by the way, one gets wonderfully accustomed—I slept till dawn, when I was awoke by something moving about under the

sofa on which I was stretched. Being too sleepy and lazy to examine who the restless occupant of the floor could be, I determined patiently to wait till he should please to make his exit. Presently, two beautiful pigeons strutted forth, and looked indignantly round at the intruders; but bethinking themselves that it was better to be hospitable, they cooed us a welcome and a good-morning.

There is no carriage-road further eastward than Aloushta; and those proprietors and villagers who live along that coast are obliged to content themselves with either riding on horseback, or being jolted in small arabas on two wheels, drawn by buffaloes, to their respective places of abode. Many are the hairbreadth escapes, when on these difficult tracks an obstinate buffalo persists in having his own way, or when a careless or inexperienced driver mistakes the road; but for all that, accidents are very rare, and they are quite content to travel on in the primitive way in which their forefathers, for many generations, have done before them.

CHAPTER II.

RUSSIAN DRIVER—VILLAGE OF DIMIRDJI-TAUSHAN BAZAAR—THE SALGHIR—RUSSIAN COUNTRY-HOUSE—ZAKOUSKA—DINNER—VILLAGE—VISIT TO A SERF'S DWELLING—CONDITION OF SERFS—DRESS OF THE PEASANTS—SUPERSTITION—WANT OF LABOURERS.

Whip! whip! and off we go, up the steep road which leads from the south coast to Simpheropol; and the driver, knowing the hard task his poor, thin little nags are expected to perform, encourages them something in this manner—"Pull away, my children, pull away; God will help you; now—never fear; on you go, my little pigeons;" and ever and anon cracks his short and shabby whip to give emphasis to his words, insinuating at the same time to what consequences a noncompliance with his request to proceed might lead.

To the right, we look down on an extensive valley, thickly covered with small gardens and fields, and dotted over with immense walnut trees; and beyond it, beneath a ridge of basaltic columns, stands the village of Dimirdji, the cottages of which can scarcely be distinguished from the masses of rock which have rolled down from the heights, crushing in their fall many of these habitations. High above all, towers the mountain of the same name, with its rugged and barren summit; and leaving behind us, on our left, the Babugan Mountain, covered from summit to base with wood, we take our upward course across the shoulder of Tchatir Dagh. After a succession of jerks and stoppages, we reach an obelisk, erected to point out the resting-place of the Emperor Alexander in 1824, at a height of 2,800 feet above the level of the sea.

We then wend our way down a steep and difficult road to Taushan Bazaar, a Russian post-house, in the very heart of the wood; and after following for a few miles, through a narrow and thickly-wooded valley, the course of a small rapid stream which joins the Salghir, a more open country breaks upon the view.

The Salghir, one of the largest of the Crimean rivers, is only worthy of the name of a river in autumn and winter, for in summer it is often so dry, that it is easy to get across without wetting one's feet, by jumping from one stone to another The road to Simpheropol lies along the banks, and frequently even in the bed of the Salghir.

Sometimes (as there is no bridge), in consequence of the storms of rain or snow, its current becomes so rapid, and its depth so great, that it is impossible to attempt to cross it. Its course, from its source in the mountains to some miles beyond Simpheropol, may be traced by the orchards all along its banks, and the rich verdure of the meadows and fields of tobacco. It is a common thing to shelter these orchards by a screen of tall Lombardy poplars, which, with their spiral tops towering above the wide-spreading fruit trees, make a pleasing variety in the landscape, and compensate, in some measure, for the want of the cypress, which cannot stand the cold of the climate on this side of the mountains.

Tartar villages with their humble mosques, and gentlemen's country houses becoming more and more frequent, betoken our approach to a town.

But if we like to get a peep into one of these establishments, we must turn up this avenue of ash and poplar trees, and visit the proprietor of these little red, green, and yellow houses, which look half-hid among the trees, for all the world like the toys we used to play with in the days of our childhood.

We have stopped, then, at one of them, nearly the whole side of which is one enormous window; and the hot-house plants which are within, are shaded from the burning rays of the sun by the thick bushy verdure of the splendid Bignonia radicans, with its clusters of bright orangecoloured bells, which reaches to the very roof of the house. In a small ante-room stand a number of attendants, and in the large room with the large window, into which we are ushered, we find the landlord chatting with some friends. and the table prepared for dinner. After the usual salutations, and whilst covers are being added, we are invited to whet our appetites by partaking of what is called the zakouska, which is a sort of déjeuner served immediately before dinner, and usually consisting of cheese, smoked, salted, or pickled fish, caviare, raw onions, radishes, and brandy or liqueur, all of which are laid out on a side table.

This preliminary course being ended, we take our places at the hospitable board, which is only as yet furnished with a plate of soup before each person.

The soup finished, our host rings a small handbell by his side; the attendants enter, change the plates, and disappear, being succeeded by the major-domo, who presents to each of the party the dish next in order, and so on, till the whole dinner has passed in review. Coffee is then handed round to all, and cigars and chibouks to the gentlemen, after which each one retires to enjoy his siesta. As I have never adopted this indolent habit, I shall go out a little and look about me.

The houses form quite a little village. The largest—our host's dwelling-house—has an open gallery in front, which is covered with the beautiful verdure of the virgin vine. Near it, surrounded by rose trees of every shade and huc, are the apartments allotted to his lady visitors. Lower down in the garden, is the one in which we have just dined, below which again is a suite of rooms for the use of the gentleman visitors. These are all separated one from another by flower-beds and gravel-walks; and here also, in a large space of ground, enclosed by lilac bushes, and shaded by accacia trees, are placed, during the summer months, all the exotic plants of the greenhouse, forming a most enjoyable drawingroom for the summer evenings.

A little way off, the steward's house, the coachhouse, stable, dairy, ice-house, and other offices, surround a large court-yard; at the other side of which are again enclosures for the cattle and poultry.

About a quarter of a mile from the mansion-

house is the village, inhabited by forty or fifty families of serfs, some of whom are occupied in field labour, while others are household servants. The former work three days in the week for themselves and three days for their master, from whom they receive no remuneration for their labour in money, -instead of which, a cottage with a piece of land attached to it is allotted to each of them. Each head of a family possesses one or two pair of oxen, with which he ploughs his piece of ground, carts firewood from the woods to town for sale, or employs himself in any way that he finds most profitable. Their houses are some of them wretched hovels. They are built generally of rough stone, plastered over with clay, and covered with tiles. On entering one of the poorer of these habitations, we find a slovenlylooking woman, with half-a-dozen children, each one more ragged and dirty than the other, but nevertheless strong and healthy. A large brick stove projects into this small dwelling, and serves the purposes of heating it, cooking and baking. Two rows of stakes driven into the ground, support some planks which form a bedstead, and a few small benches and a common table complete the furniture; while in a corner hangs the picture of a saint, coarsely painted on wood, with

a rudely ornamented lamp burning night and day before it.

The condition of serfs in the Crimea, as in other parts of Russia, differs, of course, according to the character and disposition of their masters. Many are ruled with an iron hand; harsh words, threats, and even blows, being of no uncommon occurrence. Others again, seem to be perfectly happy in their servitude; and having no ideas beyond their own homes, are quite contented with their lot. As soon as children attain the age of eight or nine years, the master decides what trade they are to follow. Some of the smallest boys are fixed upon as lacqueys, coachmen, or postillions; and the rest are brought up to be stableboys, cooks, carpenters, gardeners, or any useful employment about the property. In many large establishments, where the families of the household servants are too numerous for these occupations, some of them learn shoemaking; and many are allowed to hire themselves out to others, upon paying a certain sum annually to their master. With the exception of some of the superior household servants, whose ideas are a little more refined, the style of living of the Russian peasant is little removed from that of the brute beasts. Men, women, and children occupy one room, and eat out of one dish; they never take off their clothes, from one week's end to the other, except when they go to the bath; and they sleep on the top of their stoves, on the floor, or in the open air, according to the season, or as chance may require.

Their chief food consists of a sour soup, called Borshtch, made of sour salted cabbage and a bit of fat bacon; a thick pudding of millet, which they eat with milk; and coarse black bread, made of rye. During their fasts, which they zealously keep, and which extend over a great portion of the year, they substitute linseed-oil for the bacon and milk. Butcher meat is a delicacy only very rarely enjoyed. Drunkenness is a vice very common, both among men and women; and during their holidays, all their little savings are spent on wine, or the brandy of the country, called Votka. You hardly ever meet with one who is able to read, nor do their priests, who are themselves ignorant men, help to improve their condition. Russian peasant is gay and light-hearted, sings and dances whenever he has an opportunity, and takes his floggings as a matter of course. He has great imitative powers; and, in proper hands, makes a skilful and active workman. often looked with astonishment at the masterly way in which he uses the axe, of all instruments the most unwieldy; yet he can accomplish with it alone, what most of our carpenters would require a whole box of instruments to do as neatly.

The summer dress of the men is most picturesque; it consists of wide, dark-blue cotton trousers, with long boots drawn over them, a bright red cotton blouse, descending nearly to the knees, and confined round the waist either by a sort of scarf or a leathern girdle. His hair, which is divided in the centre, is cut straight round, a little below the ears, and as it is often troublesome when at work, he fastens a shaving of wood, a strip of paper, or anything he can get hold of, round his head, to keep it back. When he wishes to look particularly smart, he sometimes washes himself, and his manner of ablution is as ingenious as original. He fills his mouth with water, which he sputters out on his hands, rubbing them all the while, and repeating the sputtering until his hands are thought clean enough to perform the same office on his face; he then dispenses with the use of a towel by polishing up the whole with his blouse.

The Russian women and girls in this part of the country never wear a bonnet; the former fasten a bright-coloured handkerchief round their heads, crossing it behind, and tying it artistically in front; while the girls—unless in very severe cold weather, when they tie a handkerchief down their heads, fastened below the chin—never wear any sort of covering on their heads, either within doors or in the open air.

Where ignorance prevails, superstition is a usual accompaniment; and this is most clearly exemplified among the Russian peasantry. Sitting thirteen at a meal, the cracking of a table, or a hollow-hearted Easter cake, are sure forerunners of the King of Terrors; while the effect of the Evil Eye is so feared by mothers and nurses, that they rather hide, than show off, their infants to any one who approaches them. I remember on one occasion, having returned home with my child and her maid-an old Russian woman-from a visit to a proprietor in the neighbourhood, I was amused by the grave manner with which she paced the room, the child in her arms, stopping at every corner, spitting into it, and finishing off with a violent effort at the door. At first I was alarmed, thinking something was the matter, and was much relieved when she told me that she was trying to counteract the evil effect which the gaze of so many strangers might produce upon the repose of the child during the night.

But, in spite of all this, the condition of serfs

in Russia is very different from that of slaves, as they formerly existed in the West Indies, and still exist in the southern provinces of the United States; and if the laws in their favour were strictly put in execution, they would be in a condition equal, to say the least, to that of the free peasants in many of the countries of Europe. The serf cannot be sold separately from the land to which he is attached;—thus families cannot be broken up or dispersed. Again, the master does not possess the right of punishing his serf according to his caprice, but must apply to the local police, stating the offence of which he has been guilty, and chastisement is then inflicted according to the nature of the case. In years of scarcity, and in cases of disease or old age, the master is obliged to support his serfs, who are thus freed from all anxiety about the future. Unfortunately, there are many ways of evading, to a certain extent, these laws; and the master, from his social position, and by means of his superior wealth, is generally able to influence, in favour of his own interests or wishes, the very persons who are charged with the duty of putting the law in force. In short, as I remarked before, the condition of the serf depends, in a great measure, upon the character and disposition of

the master, modified, to a certain extent, by the influence of public opinion. When a proprietor does not himself reside on his property, but places it under the management of a steward, the lot of the serf is sometimes the most unfortunate of any which can befal him. The steward, or overseer, who is rarely sufficiently paid for the work he has to do, after forwarding to his employer the regular income derived from the estate, seldom fails to put aside a considerable sum for himself, nor does he scruple much as to the means he uses to wring this extra portion from the peasants.

In the Crimea, few of the proprietors possess any considerable number of serfs, and although the laws relating to them are the same as in Russia, their treatment is a good deal modified by the habits of the country. The serfs, in most of the establishments, are limited to the household servants and a few families occupied in agriculture, who suffice for the ordinary routine of work, but require the assistance of extra hands during the busy seasons. If you take into account that besides this, most of the small properties are cultivated entirely by free labour, and that the household servants of all foreigners, and of the majority of the employés in the towns are hired people, you

the water, which is poured cold into the vase, not only boils in the course of a few minutes, but continues hot an immense time.

The evenings are usually spent in card-playing, and after a supper, something like a dinner in miniature, the host and his visitors retire to their respective apartments.

CHAPTER III.

SIMPHEROPOL—TARTAR PART OF THE TOWN—JEWS AND GREEKS—MODERN PART—BOULEVARD—CATHEDRAL—PICTURES—MUSIC—GREEK BURIAL SERVICE—MAR-BIAGE CEREMONY—TWELFTH-DAY—BLESSING THE WATERS—MOSQUES—CHURCHES—JEWISH SYNAGOGUE—ASSEMBLY-ROOMS—COURT-HOUSE—HOSPITALS—MARKET-PLACE—WINTER AMUSEMENTS—RACES—CEMETERIES.

Were the reader to be transported blindfold into the middle of Simpheropol, it would be a puzzle difficult for him to solve, to what nation or empire this half-European, half-Asiatic town belongs. At every turn, Russians, Germans, Jews, Greeks, Armenians, and Tartars, with their peculiar costumes and physionomic characteristics, mingle with ladies and gentlemen whose style, dress and general appearance might pass unobserved in Hyde Park or the Tuileries.

Simpheropol is the capital of the Crimea, the residence of the Governor, and the seat of the Government offices and tribunals. It contains about thirteen thousand inhabitants.

The old part of the town, inhabited by Tartars,

shows the despotic rule of Mahomedanism over the weaker part of the creation, by the high stone walls which enclose each dwelling and serve to screen the unhappy inmates from the intrusive gaze of the curious.

The streets in that part of the town, are so narrow that two carriages cannot pass, and so circuitous and confined, that one who was unacquainted with them might have difficulty in finding his way out of the labyrinth. The Tartars seem to be fond of high situations, for invariably, whenever they have been the founders of a town, they have established themselves in the most elevated part of the site.

Lower down, in dirty court-yards surrounded by small houses, the Jews and Greeks take up their abode; and facing the street, the principal house in the yard is generally a shop of some kind or other. Still nearer the river Salghir, which flows through the town, is the more modern and elegant part, occupied by the neighbouring proprietors and those engaged in the Russian service.

Here there are many handsome houses, of which the largest, the residence of the Governor, is the most conspicuous. It overlooks the Boulevard, or public promenade,—a series of shady walks,

interspersed with clumps of trees and flowering shrubs, covering several acres of ground, and extending down to the water's edge. This is the favourite resort of the élite of the town; and, as a band of military music is often in attendance, the scene is very gay and animated. On Saturdays, however, the company changes; and instead of the bonnets and hats of European fashion, the picturesque head-dress of the Jewess, bespangled with jewels, takes their place. Of late years, however, the Jews and Jewesses are giving up their old costumes, and are adopting our mode of dress; so that the younger members of that community are only distinguishable by the bright colours they wear, and the extremes to which they carry the Parisian fashions.

In the centre of the new town, within a square surrounded by shady walks, stands the Novy Zabor, or New Cathedral. It is built, like most of the Russian churches, with a large dome in the centre, and four smaller ones at each corner. The domes are commonly painted green, and the walls outside either yellow or pink. What would be thought, if St. Paul's were decked in such a holiday garb?

The interior, which is without seats, is gorgeously adorned with pictures of the saints in richly gilt

panels, before each of which are placed immense candlesticks, having one huge candle in the centre, surrounded by a circle of small sockets, in which the worshippers may insert tapers, in honour of the saint at whose shrine they do homage. Ladies often work pieces of embroidery to hang about the pictures of their favourite saints; and it is not uncommon when a young lady is cut off in the prime of life, for her mother to hang the last wreath she wore in her hair, or some other ornamental part of her dress, on or about the picture of the saint her deceased daughter used to prefer.

These places of worship are held in great veneration by the Russians, and the peasant, as he walks carelessly along the streets, fails not to stop opposite the door of the sanctuary, with uncovered head, crossing himself devoutly.

Many of the ceremonies are imposing; and the fine choral music with which they are accompanied, resounding through the dome, sometimes loud and full, at others dying away to a whisper, along with the continued kneeling, crossing of themselves, and touching the ground with their foreheads, cannot fail to inspire a certain degree of solemnity and awe. As they have service in the cathedral four times a-day, the bells

seem scarcely ever to stop ringing; indeed, one gets so accustomed to them, that one is only awakened to a knowledge of their constant tinkling when it is changed to the deep toll, with its three discordant attendants, which announce the departure of a soul from earth, or the consignment of a body to the grave.

At the death or funeral of any person who can pay for it, they toll a large, fine deep-toned bell, at intervals of nearly a minute, between which three small bells, each one discordant from the other, are tolled once, one after the other, till the large bell tolls again; and so on, for as many times as the relatives wish to pay for. This wild discord and tolling immediately arrests the attention, and is particularly suited to the solemn event which it announces; indeed, during the ravages of cholera, it had such a painful effect upon every one, that it was forbidden at that time.

The Greek church service for the dead is long, and the body is placed in the church for some hours previous to burial. The corpse is decked out in the best suit or uniform the deceased possessed. A cross is put into his hands, which are folded across the breast, and a passport, with the name of the individual and a word or two of

commendation, is put across his forehead by the officiating priest. The coffin, which is often covered with crimson velvet for a grown-up person, and pink for a child, is carried open, behind the priests, who are preceded by men bearing the banners of the Church, whilst the lid is carried behind; all the men having their heads uncovered.

At the corner of each street, the whole procession stops; and a hymn is sung, which makes the walk from the church to the burying-ground often very tedious. At the grave, when the service is concluded, the relatives give a parting kiss to the remains of the deceased object of their affections. The lid is then screwed on, the body lowered, and all is over.

One part of their marriage service I must mention, as it is, I think, peculiar to the Greek Church. When the ceremony, which lasts an hour, is about half over, instead of simply joining hands, the priest ties the hands of the husband and wife together with a pink silk handkerchief, prepared for the purpose, and then placing his own hand upon the knot, he leads the couple, thus, three times round the altar, followed by a whole array of candles, and a perfect veil of smoke from the burning incense.

On the 18th January, being Twelfth-day (Old Style), there is annually a great ceremony, when the priests, in all their sacerdotal splendour, go down to the river and perform service on its banks, immersing the cross several times, and so blessing the waters. The people then crowd to fill their vessels with the water, which they carefully keep from year to year, as they have great faith in its curative powers, both for man and beast.

The ceremonies of their many festival days are all peculiar, and would perhaps be interesting; but I shall, for the present, proceed with the description of the town.

Besides the new cathedral, there is another in the old part of the town, smaller in size, but similar in construction; two or three mosques, with their spiral minarets, a Lutheran church, a Roman Catholic church, a Greek church, and an Armenian church. There is but one Protestant clergyman, a German pastor; and as he has four different stations at which he preaches in rotation, he only officiates once a month at Simpheropol—the teacher of the German school connected with the church reading prayers and a sermon on the other Sundays during the year.

A Jewish synagogue recedes unobtrusively from the street, and is almost unobserved, except

on the Friday evenings, when it is brilliantly illuminated.

There are no public buildings worthy of remark, except the assembly-rooms, which is quite a modern erection, having been built some four or five years ago. During the winter season balls take place there very frequently; and people of all ages attend to dance or play at cards, as suits their inclination. At the Carnival season sometimes even a fancy ball is attempted. Any one would have laughed heartily at the costume, which, on one of these occasions, was palmed upon the company, as that worn by our Scotch lassies in the highlands. It consisted of a short tartan petticoat, with a black velvet bodice, trimmed with gold lace and loose flowing muslin sleeves: a small black velvet cap, on which a silver thistle held a plume of black feathers; and a tartan scarf, fastened à l'Ecossaise across the shoulder, completed the dress. With the pretty face of the wearer to set it off, it looked very becoming, as may be supposed, but very different from what it was intended to represent.

The tribunals, or court-houses, are far from being ornamental buildings; their long, plain exteriors making them exactly like some of our cotton factories. There are two or three hospitals and barracks—all equally ungainly in appearance, with the exception of one of the hospitals, which was built by a private individual, and into which admission may be obtained gratuitously by those who are poor and in need of medical care.

I think the most interesting sight here is the market-place, when it is crowded with sellers and buyers as it is once at least every week. It is a large open square, surrounded by Tartar, Greek, and Armenian shops, containing every kind of goods imaginable. In summer, when fruits and flowers abound, it is really beautiful and tempting to see the piles of cherries, plums, peaches and apricots, of which you can buy as much as you can carry for a few pence; and, later in the season, the mountains of melons and watermelons, and the cart-loads of grapes at every step, show the facility with which these delicious fruits are cultivated in the Crimea. The night before the market-day, all the roads leading to the town are crowded with carts laden with provisions of all kinds; and the tired camels, who lie down wherever they stop, keep up a pitiful moaning. They immediately on arriving take up their position in the Market-place, as at break of day all good housekeepers are on the alert to get the first choice.

Suppose, then, that we go together, up this narrow road, on each side of which are vendors of maize, garlic, love-apples, and other vegetables, whilst, squatted on the ground further on, German women sit ensconced among baskets of eggs and baskets of butter; then follow the fruits, of which I have made mention already; then sacks of corn, flour and millet, standing by dozens, stiff and stately; and walking to and fro, with a roguish look and sharp eye, the Tsiganas or gipsies try to tempt you with some dozens of turkeys, geese, ducks and fowls, tied together unceremoniously by the legs. Around us all is bustle, the sounds of six or eight different languages are heard on all sides, and every one seems to be bargaining as loudly as he can.

This babel of tongues, and variety of costumes, gives such ample opportunity for observation, that, in summer, marketing is quite a pleasure. But reverse the picture: fancy yourself on a cold, winter day in January, everything bleak and comfortless, the mud almost up to the knees, every one wading instead of walking through it,—and you will confess that chilling realities now take the place of romance. The gay costumes which so enlivened the summer scene have now given place to dingy coats, dirty sheepskins,

and still dirtier boots. Fruits and flowers are all forgotten, and the chief thought of each one seems to be to procure for himself a good bargain of oak wood for fuel, with which the market is well supplied. There are no coal-pits in the Crimea. The coal that is used for the steam-vessels is mostly brought from England as ballast, in vessels which return laden with wheat.

Conveyances of every kind, from the handsome chariot-and-four to the little Russian droshky, wend their way along the streets, amid carts drawn by oxen, sulky-looking buffaloes, and haughty camels, who seem to look scornfully round on their less lofty competitors. Everyone drives here; from the ill-paid Government clerk to the well-dressed lady, each one must have a carriage.

When the Russians harness three horses to their vehicles, a swift trotter is always chosen for the shafts, and the two side horses, having their heads tightly fastened outwards to make them curve their necks gracefully, are trained to keep up with it at a canter. The nobility, who alone have the privilege of driving horses which are harnessed two and two, adopt this manner in town; the pair in front being mounted by a postillion, and attached to the pole of the

carriage by very long traces. The shopkeepers, and others who have not this privilege, harness their horses four abreast; but as this method is considered to divide the work more equally, it is preferred by all classes when on a journey. In spring or autumn, when the roads are broken up, many extra horses are required. I have known as many as eleven having been employed for one carriage, which were harnessed six abreast, then three abreast, and two in front of all. coachman holds the reins with outstretched arm, two in each hand, and as using the whip, which hangs from his wrist, is very inconvenient, he occasionally flaps the reins upon the backs of the horses, which makes them set off at full speed. As sledges are low, the coachman generally stands while driving them, which he seems to do with perfect ease. There is very little sledging in the Crimea, as the snow seldom lies long on the ground, and falls so unequally, that it is rather a risk to set out on a journey of even twenty miles in that conveyance. However, so fond are the Russians of this amusement, that the moment snow begins to fall, all the bearded coachmen are on the alert, and I have not unfrequently been on sledging excursions with Russian ladies, when there was so little snow on

the ground, that every now and then we went bumping upon stones in a most ridiculous and uncomfortable manner.

The Russian houses are uncommonly warm and comfortable. They are heated by brick stoves built in the wall, made to contain a good quantity of wood, which is burnt quickly, and the embers shut in while red hot, by closing the orifices both above and below. Before winter sets in, the windows are all fastened round the seams and made air-tight. Double sashes are put in. leaving only one pane of glass in each room to open for the admission of air. You seldom see a passage, as in our houses; each room serving as an entrance to the one beyond, and so on, you make the circuit of the dwelling. The kitchen and servants' apartments are separate from the house, but connected with it by a covered pas-Each establishment has its court-vard, in which are the stables, coach-house, and other outhouses; and it is here that the wood, which is cut in lengths required for the stoves, is piled up in stacks for the winter's use.

On entering the house from the street, there is first an ante-room, then the dining-room, off which is the drawing-room, and from which, again, you can make the tour through the bedrooms. The floors are painted or polished, and washed or rubbed with wax every day; and in winter small Persian carpets are placed before the sofas or divans, upon which the inmates are usually seated. The furniture is similar to our own, with the addition of the Turkish divan—a low, broad seat, varying in length according to the place it is intended to occupy, and covered with a carpet or other thick material, and having thick flat cushions placed against the wall to form the back.

A great deal of pleasant social visiting goes on among the inhabitants of Simpheropol. Many of them have their reception evenings; while others, again, have their doors always open, to any of their friends who may choose to spend the evening with them.

In the course of the winter, the Governor and some of the principal families, give several balls on the namedays or birthdays of some one of their family, to which all their friends and acquaintances are invited; and on these occasions no trouble or expense is spared to have everything in abundance, and in the best style the town affords.

The suite of rooms tends greatly to the practicability and pleasure of entertaining a large number of visitors, as they can move about, sit, walk, or dance at pleasure, without interfering with the general

comfort of the company. A band of music is always in attendance in the ante-room, and as soon as a considerable number have assembled, a polonaise is played, when each gentleman, old or young, leads a lady by the hand two or three times round the rooms, to open the ball; after which, the matrons and the elderly gentlemen, who have bid adieu to dancing, retire into a smaller room adjoining to play at cards, while the younger portion commence a series of polkas and quadrilles. During the whole evening, at short intervals, lacquis innumerable hand about ices and large trays, full of tastefully ornamented and arranged bon-bons, and at twelve o'clock supper is generally announced. Then follows nearly the same routine The ladies and gentlemen are as at dinner. seated, however, at different tables; champagne flows in abundance; and after drinking the toast of the day, to the health of the person in whose honour the ball has been given, the music again begins to play, and each one rises from table to return back again to finish the dance, or the game, or, it may be, to retire to bed. The finishing dance of the evening is the mazourka, which is sometimes kept up for hours, and ends generally more like a romp for children, than a dance for ladies and gentlemen.

Among the amusements, I must not forget to mention the races, which take place every year during the month of October, on the plain to the south of the town. A platform is erected for the judges and their friends; a band of music is in attendance; and the number of carriages, and the crowds of eager spectators in their bright holiday garments, make it really a pretty sight.

The principal prize is a silver vase, worth about 50l., given by the Emperor. The horses, which are mounted by boys, without saddles, are generally of the Tartar breed; and, though small in size, are strong and active, and get over the eight miles, which is the length of the course they have to run, in very good style. follow the handkerchief races, which are more original and infinitely more amusing. A brightcoloured handkerchief is given to one of the horsemen, who, holding it high in his hand, sets off with it at full gallop, and is immediately followed by many eager competitors for the prize. He who is fortunate enough to obtain possession of it, ties it immediately to his horse's head, so that the lucky winners are easily distinguished among the crowd during the rest of the day. The whole is often concluded by a camel race, in which the unwieldly movements, and the uncouth appearance of these animals, afford much merriment and diversion.

A fair is held twice a-year in Simpheropol; but with the exception of a variety of carpets, silk stuffs, and silver ornaments brought from the Caucasus and the frontiers of Persia, there is scarcely any influx of merchandise at these times.

A small garrison is always kept here, which is frequently augmented by a regiment of infantry of the line. A few Cossacks and a company o gensd'armes act the part of guards on all public occasions. The police department is in a very bad state; indeed, if anything is stolen, the surest way never to get it again is to give notice of its loss to the police. For instance, my saddle was once stolen from me, and I found it would be cheaper for me to buy it back again, from the person in whose possession it was found, than to hand the thief over to the police for punishment.

The Christian, Jewish, and Mahomedan cemeteries, all situated outside of the town, are easily distinguishable by the different monuments and tombs raised to the memory of the dead. Of the situation and general appearance of the town, some idea may be formed from the Frontispiece.

CHAPTER IV.

BANKS OF THE ALMA—ORCHARDS AND VINEYARDS—
BAGHTCHE SARAI—PALACE OF THE KHANS—FOUNTAINS—HAREM—MOSQUE—TARTAR HOUSES—TARTAR
WOMEN—DERVISHES—TARTAR REPAST—MONASTERY—
VALLEY OF JEHOSHAPHAT—TCHOUFOUT KALI—
KARAITE JEWS—SYNAGOGUE.

On the 27th of August, the fête day of St. Mary's Monastery at Baghtché Sarai, pilgrims from far and near flock thither; some in carriages, others on foot, and some even, as a penance or in fulfilment of a vow, go barefooted, to do homage at her shrine. We may as well, then, follow the multitude, and see what goes on. From Simpheropol, until we reach the banks of the river Alma, the country is very uninteresting and thinly peopled. A solid stone bridge is thrown over the river, and here, on every side, all is smiling, rich and luxuriant.

Orchards and vineyards follow one another in never-ending succession, and the snug-looking dwellings of their owners, nestling among the

trees, give one the idea of comfort and plenty. These orchards, containing sometimes several thousand trees, planted in lines about thirty feet apart, are the principal sources from whence the proprietor derives his income. As soon as the fruit is formed, it is sold to Tartars, whose duty it is to watch and take care of the fruit until it is ripe. They, again, dispose of it to merchants who arrive at the proper season from Moscow and Petersburg, and who convey it thither, closely packed in straw, and sewed up in matting, in such bundles as conveniently fit into a cart. It is sometimes a great loss to the Tartars, when from the summer's drought the fruit falls unripe from the trees; but as in making their bargain they always calculate on such contingencies, they often realise a large profit. Anything I ever saw in England comes far short of the delicious apples and pears which grow here. The pears particularly are exquisite; for, in addition to their exceedingly fine flavour, they really melt like snow in the mouth.

The vineyards on the banks of the Alma produce grapes which are very pleasant and good for the table, but make a very inferior sour wine. It is sold at a very low price to wine merchants, who concoct of it something which they sell as

south coast wine, but which I need scarcely tell you, is anything but palatable.

The Khans of the Crimea are said to have had their summer residence on the banks of this delightful stream; and on one little hillock, apparently surrounded by a kind of moat, there has evidently been a Kiosque, to which an ascent by stairs still remains. It is here that the Tartars believe that a black horse guards a hidden treasure, and many go the length of asserting that they have seen it occasionally. I, however, have sojourned often near the spot, and have never been favoured by a sight of the phantom. Every here and there are many curious-looking excavations, and piles of stones which have evidently been used in building. Immense burying-grounds, in some of which I have found tombstones of the most beautiful white marble half buried in the turf, lie scattered about the neighbourhood; all of which show that this must have been a very populous part of the country. I have often wished, while seated here in an open verandah on a fine summer evening, that my friends at home had been beside me, to enjoy the warm, balmy air, and the songs of the many nightingales which answer one another in one continued song. They warble all night long, heedless alike

of the sharp plaintive cry of a small kind of owl which seems to wish to compete with them, and the noisy merriment of the frogs, a numerous community.

These creatures congregate wherever there is water, and keep up a sort of uproarious laughter, a continued ha-ha-ha, that sounds as if they were half choked with their own merriment-a diabolical merriment, for it is chiefly indulged in during the fine summer evenings; and go where you will, you are greeted with this continued ha -ha-ha, as if the creatures merely existed to laugh at the beauties of nature. frog, chiefly found on the south coast, is, however, an exception; it is an elegant little creature, of a bright green colour, scarcely distinguishable from the leaves of the trees in which it is generally found, whilst its bird-like noise floats along the air in a continuous beautiful silver trill. pretty little frog is sometimes kept in place of a barometer, in a large glass jar, something like those we see in our druggists' windows. This jar is half filled with water; an artistically-made ladder is inserted into it, upon which the frog in fine weather rises to the upper half, and on the approach of a change for the worse, he takes refuge in the water below.

Leaving the Alma, we traverse a large plain, which extends as far as the top of the narrow valley in which Baghtché Sarai, the ancient Tartar capital, lies concealed. But how shall I convey to the reader an idea of the situation of this singular-looking town? Suppose the middle section of a hill swept away by a torrent passing through it, leaving the banks on either side sloping outwards; and suppose that along these banks are a number of excavations and huge mis-shapen stones, as if the torrent had swept away the surrounding earth in which they were embedded, leaving them so balanced that they look as if a touch would send them rolling into the valley; and suppose the bottom of this ravine, through which runs a streamlet, packed full of houses without any seeming plan; and you have the picture of Baghtché Sarai. It seems as if it had secluded itself, on purpose to be out of the way of the modern march of intellect, and certainly it has succeeded. Centuries have made no change in the manners, customs, appearance and intelligence of the natives, and generations have come and gone in Baghtché Sarai, and yet it is exactly the same town that it ever was.

The principal street, which runs parallel with

the little streamlet, the Djourouk Sou, for nearly a mile, is so narrow that two carriages pass with difficulty, and those which branch off it, on both sides of the valley, are many of them only fit for foot passengers. In this town nothing is Russian; all is Eastern and Asiatic. All along the streets, in little shops which close at night with wooden shutters, which when folded down serve as a counter by day, Tartars may be seen busy at their respective trades, only stopping their work on the arrival of a purchaser. Hatters, barbers, cotton-cleaners, bakers, cooks, each one squatted on his counter, carries on his trade heedless of the passers-by. At short intervals along the streets are fountains showering forth their clear and refreshing streams, at which are groups of Tartars washing their hands and feet, previous to entering the mosque. Further on, are hungry Tartars eating their shishliki (pieces of mutton roasted on small wooden pins), equally unmindful of the eager gaze of the little, ragged gipsyboys, who watch every mouthful with envious eyes, and of the passing glance of the traveller, who wends his way slowly along the rugged and uneven street.

The ancient Palace of the Khans is situated about the centre of the town; and after entering

a covered gateway, guarded by Cossacks, the residence of the former rulers, with its many gardens, its harem and its marble baths, lies open to view.

All the elegance of Oriental architecture adorns this fairy-like dwelling. Groups of fantastic birds, fruits and flowers, interspersed with talismanic inscriptions, ornament the panels, and stand out in bold contrast with the dazzling white of the walls. Among the most striking of the numerous apartments, is a large reception hall, where the Khan held his councils; at the end of which is a trelliced gallery for the use of his ladies, and also a small room, luxuriantly surrounded by a broad divan, in the centre of which a fountain is continually throwing up its showers of the purest water ; -indeed, this Palace of Gardens, as its name signifies, might have been called the Palace of Fountains, as water flows every-Two beautiful fountains, artistically where carved in white marble and ornamented with gilding and bright-coloured paint, welcome you with their trickling sound as you enter the large vestibule. One of these is called the Fountain of Tears, and commemorates the grief of the beautiful Christian Countess, Marie Pototsky, whose beauty so enamoured Krim Gherei, the Khan, that he

caused her to be kept a prisoner within these walls. It really drops tears, and the stone upon which they continually fall is hollowed out like a basin. Pouschkine, the Byron of Russia, has immortalised this beautiful fountain by a poem, in which the feelings of the unfortunate prisoner are depictured in a forcible and touching manner.

Passing through a garden, we reach the harem—silent, sad, and gloomy—whose trelliced windows, marble halls and high surrounding walls, give no very pleasing idea of the gaiety of the life of its former inhabitants. To the left of the principal entrance to the palace is the mosque, with its domes and minarets, the largest in Baghtché Sarai. A private entrance from the palace leads to a gallery, which was expressly kept for the use of the Khan; and beyond the mosque, within an enclosure, lie the turbaned tombs of the ancient possessors of this palace.

Mosques innumerable are scattered all over the town, and four times a day does the Moolah ascend the steep staircase, to the top of the minaret, to call the faithful to prayers. I have frequently stood among the rejected slippers at the door, to watch them at their devotions; and have been much struck with the earnestness and attention with which they read the Koran, and go through their services. Being anxious to see the Dervishes, I once went with some friends to Baghtché Sarai, during the Ramazan, the Mahomedan fast, for that purpose; and we took up our quarters at the house of a Tartar shopkeeper, who promised to accompany us to their place of worship.

These Tartar houses are built facing the street, but have their court-yards behind, enclosed within walls. The master has his apartments in front; while his wives and children, have to content themselves with the view of their own dwelling, and the wall beyond. After interchanging a few polite salutations with our host, I, along with other two ladies of the party, asked permission to visit the veiled ladies in the apartments adjoining. We were there received with open arms, and kissed by them all, one after the Presently our company increased till we other. had quite a room full; and on asking if they were all one household. I was told that the female part of the inhabitants have little doors, giving entrance from their own dwellings to those of their female neighbours adjoining, whereby they may visit one another without going into the street; and hence the influx of strangers.

The Tartar women spin a great deal, and carry about the distaff constantly with them; they also embroider their towels and veils with gold thread and coloured silks, but neither the pattern nor the arrangement of the colours show much taste. The Tartar girls wear a little red fez, or cap, with a flat blue silk tassel on the top, constantly on their heads; and their hair, which is plaited in fifty little plaits, hangs all round their shoulders. The rich Tartar ladies have these caps ornamented with gold coins, and the flat tassel in the centre also made of gold fringe. Red hair is considered beautiful among the Tartar women, who use a dye for the purpose of making it that colour. Their nails, also, are stained a brick colour; their eyebrows painted to join above the nose; in short, what they think indispensable to their adornment, is much opposed to our ideas of beauty.

After sitting here a little, we returned to the gentlemen, where we found coffee, tea, fruit and other dainties, spread out for us to partake, and a band of rude musicians preparing to play to us as soon as seated. After having done ample justice to the good cheer of our host, being requested to show how we dance, we went through the figures of a quadrille, greatly to the delight and admiration of the veiled ladies, who peeped

at us through a grating at the side of the room.

About eleven o'clock at night, we sallied forth to the mosque to see the howling Dervishes; and found them already engaged in their devotions. One of them, apparently the chief, stood with his back to the sanctuary, and sung, in a monotonous manner, a prayer out of a book which he held in his hand, the others forming a circle round him. At certain intervals they all began to bend their bodies, first to the right and then to the left, at the same time repeating, at first slowly, "Al-lah, Al-lah!" gradually, however, that slow movement quickened and quickened, till it got to be a perfect dance, and the "Al-lah" waxed into a perfect howl-the chief Moolah singing his peculiar song all the time-till, at length, first one and then another of the exhausted fanatics dropped down in a faint. The circle got smaller and smaller, and the service ended. I need not say, that the impression left was far from being a pleasing one, and that we returned to our Tartar's dwelling, satisfied with having seen once this disgusting spectacle, but fully resolved never to witness it again.

On reaching our abode, we found the table covered with dishes of mutton cooked in differ-

ent ways; a kind of vermicelli, prepared with honey and mutton fat; and fruits of various kinds. With grace and dignity, our host begged us to partake, and unfolded a long web of linen, which was laid on our knees, to serve as a napkin. This article, the reader will agree with me, was not de trop, when I tell him that knives and forks are luxuries which have not yet reached the Tartars. A little silver knife, which I always carry about with me, was greatly in request; but in spite of its services, each one hailed the appearance of a little Tartar boy, bearing a basin and jug full of water, which he poured over the hands of each one in succession.

The Tartars of Baghtché Sarai, and those of the south coast, are, for the most part, finelooking men, their countenances partaking of the characteristics of the Greek and Turk; while those of the steppe have the round face and flat features of the Kalmuck and Nogay.

They are a quiet, inoffensive, indolent set of people, fond of smoking their chibouks, talking gossip, and telling, or listening to, wonderful tales; but when roused, they are exceedingly passionate and revengeful. In the more remote parts they still retain the character for honesty and sobriety which they once possessed all over

the country, but in the villages contiguous to the towns, they are fast following the example of the Russians in this respect.

I never heard of an instance of housebreaking, although I have lived in Tartar villages, and in their immediate vicinity, without even locking the doors at night; but they do not scruple to steal vegetables, to cut the branches of trees for firewood, to turn their horses or cattle to graze at night in the neighbouring meadows, or to appropriate anything they may find, which might be useful to themselves. The intoxicating drink which they indulge in, is called Bouza. It is made from millet, is of a dark-brown colour, as thick as gruel, and those who habitually drink it become fat, heavy, dull, and unfit for anything. They are exceedingly improvident; they sell the grain of an abundant harvest, to enjoy themselves, and when provisions are dear, they require to work for anything they can get, to keep themselves from starving. Their language is a dialect of the Turkish, and is spoken in the greatest purity at Baghtché Sarai.

But we must on to the monastery, to which everyone is hastening, and take our place among the many vehicles which are jolting through the ill-paved street to the foot of the hill upon which

it is situated. About a mile from the town, excavated on the face of a steep precipice, the Monastery of the Assumption looks down on the It contains a chapel and several vale beneath. rooms, cut in the solid rock. The front of the chapel is made of masonwork, with projecting wooden galleries, which hang suspended over the abyss. Access is obtained by a staircase, also cut in the rock; and a dizzy sight it is, to look from these aërial galleries upon the valley below. The chapel, which is small and low-roofed, is crowded on these occasions with the pious pilgrims who are worshipping there; and the monks, ever ready to receive their offerings, obtain sometimes a good deal of money. But, as the heat is excessive, and the smell of the incense overpowering, we shall descend, and take a look at the neighbouring country.

Rising from the opposite side of the valley, is one continued line of precipice studded with numerous caverns. Groups of Greeks and Armenians, with their bright-coloured garments, are scattered all along the ravine, and music of various kinds greets the ear; for now that their fasting and devotions are over, all is feasting and mirth. Leaving behind us the noise and bustle of the crowd, we arrive at the valley of

Jehoshophat, the burying-place of the Karaite Here all is peaceful and still, and the numerous tombstones, which lie crowded beneath the spreading trees, tell of generations that have long since passed away. Proceeding onwards, we see before us, on an isolated and perpendicular rock, the small town of Tchoufout-Kali, or the Jews' Fortress, many of the houses of which are built on the very verge of the precipice. town is surrounded by a wall; the approach to it, which is very steep, is defended by a gate, which is closed every night; and here the Karaite Jews, the sole inhabitants of the place, preserve undisturbed their ancient manners and customs. Through narrow streets, the pavement of which is the bare rock, we proceed to the synagogue, the only place worth seeing in the town, and here is shown a very remarkable and curious manuscript copy of the Jewish Bible, which is mounted on rollers, and is said to be of great antiquity.

Though this place, from its situation, appears impregnable, yet it could not be defended for any length of time, in consequence of the want of water; the whole supply for the inhabitants being brought from a fountain in the valley beneath, in small casks slung across the backs of

asses. The greater part of the male inhabitants repair during the day to their respective shops, or places of business, in Baghtché Sarai, and return to their houses in Tchoufout-Kali in the evening.

The population of this singularly-situated town diminishes very much every year, from its inhabitants removing to Kuzloff and other towns in the Crimea, and does not now exceed a few hundreds. The Karaite Jews are evidently a race distinct from those Jews who are to be met with scattered in such numbers all over Europe. They differ from them in appearance, habits and character; and even when living near one another at Simpheropol, or elsewhere, they have very little intercourse together. The Karaites in their general style of physiognomy resemble a good deal the Armenians; they are cleanly in their persons, as well as in their houses, and their manners are polished and dignified. dress consists of a kaftan, or long loose surtout, confined round the waist by a coloured silk sash, and a fur cap, which is exchanged when in the house for one made of silk, fitting close to the head. The Karaites are renowned for honesty in all their dealings; they are the most enterprising traders in the country; and as they always assist

those of their sect who may be in difficulties, it is rare to meet with one of them who is not established in a fair and reputable way. The chief difference in point of doctrine between these Karaites and the other Jews, consists in this, that the former have rejected the Talmud and the Rabbinical traditions, which the latter have adopted.

Late in the autumn of 1851, my husband and I were detained for horses at the Belbek post-station, about eight miles from Sevastopol. While he was occupied in trying to hasten the lazy drivers, I stepped into the travellers' room, and was presently joined by a very well dressed Karaite Jew.

Being similarly situated with ourselves, in waiting for horses, he gave vent to his grief at the delay in the German language, thinking I was a German lady.

When I undeceived him as to my mother country, he attempted a few words of English, and ended by telling me that he had just come from the Great Exhibition in London, and was returning to his family at Sevastopol. He informed me also, that ten of his sect, from different parts of the Crimea, had gone along with him to see that wonderful fairy palace, and that

each one had returned enchanted with everything, and laden with various kinds of merchandise for their shops in the Crimea.

With feelings of regret that I too had not seen the Great Exhibition, I seated myself in the carriage, and was soon driving away in one direction, while the Karaite Jew, brimful of the wonders he had seen, and eager, no doubt, to relate his adventures to his less-travelled brethren, went galloping away in the other.

CHAPTER V.

GIPSIES—VALLEY OF BELBEK—ROADS—VULTURES AND
EAGLES—TCHEBNAYA—APPROACH TO SEVASTOPOL—
QUAY—TERRACES—FORT NICHOLAS—ADMIRALTY—
ASSEMBLY-ROOMS—CATHEDRAL—THEATRE—LIBRARY
—HULKS—PRISONERS'BARRACKS—MILITARY HOSPITAL
—DOCKS—INKERMAN—VALLEY OF OASHAKOFF--ANCIENT CHERSONESE—MONASTERY OF ST. GEORGE—
BALACLAVA—TCHERGONA—MANGOUP KALE—KAROLEZ.

RETRACING our steps through Baghtché Sarai, and up the steep ascent to the plain, we pass some large barracks filled with soldiers; and close to the post-house beside them, are a few cottages inhabited chiefly by Tsiganas, or gipsies. Here, in the coldest day of winter and the warmest of summer, little boys may be seen running about in the state in which Nature made them, without any covering whatever, and groups of women and girls, with dishevelled hair and tattered garments, standing idly at the doors of their dirty-looking dwellings. Some few of this wild wandering tribe have been induced to take up their abode permanently, in different parts of the Crimea; but they still retain their customs,

language and dress. The men occupy themselves chiefly as horse-dealers, frequent all the markets in this capacity, and often, it is alleged, get horses stolen, or cause them to stray from the fields, in order to throw a little business in their own way.

A few miles further on, the windings of the Katcha are distinguishable by the vineyards and orchards along its course; and after crossing it by a bridge, and again passing through a plain bounded on both sides by hills, we reach the valley of Belbek.

For nearly a mile the village of Douankoi runs parallel with the river Belbek; on the north side of which narrow valley are hard sandy hills with little excavations close to the road, full of the finest sand. The road here being confined within narrow limits, is at all times bad and uneven, but in winter it is truly distressing to see the poor little horses dragging their vehicles through this slough of despond. But those who are accustomed to railways and good macadamised roads can have no idea of the tracks called roads here. No care is taken either to make or repair them; those which are called post-roads being marked by a ditch dug on each side, leaving a space for a wide road between; whilst the bye-roads are

merely tracks made by the wheels of the carts and vehicles themselves. There is generally one beaten track on these post-roads, which in dry weather is rubbed smooth by the numerous vehicles passing to and fro, but on either side the rest of the space between the ditches is rugged and uneven; so that passing a line of majars, a carriage, or other conveyance, you must either jolt over the ruts yourself, or by obstinately keeping the good track, leave the pleasures of a shake to those whom you meet. A few days of rain destroys these roads most completely, and the passage of a few vehicles cuts them up and makes them as if they had been ploughed. The mud is of such a sticky consistency, that each wheel raises up a portion, which it as speedily deposits and presses down again; as if it were on purpose trying to make a succession of hillocks and hollows for the next comer to jolt over again. But, tedious and wearisome as it is to travel on such roads, with the mud half way up to the axle, the poor horses at a walking pace pulling and panting as if they could not go a step further, yet it is nothing compared to the torture experienced when a night's frost has hardened the mud sufficiently to resist the pressure of the wheels. Then you have really jolting in perfection. It makes my

very joints ache to think of it; and as a proof of the hard work it occasions to the poor patient beasts of burden, remains are left all along the roads of horses or oxen which have sunk under their load. Nor do their owners take the trouble to draw their carcases to a side; where they fell, there they lie, to the terror of their living brethren, and at the risk of breaking the necks of those travellers who pass by. The vultures, however, are fortunately very numerous, and always ready for a meal, and their instinct in finding out these carcases is really incomprehensible.

On the occasion of the body of an ox being left in the evening, in a small valley a few hundred yards from the house where I was residing, I observed, next morning, numbers of vultures soaring from beyond the neighbouring hill, right to where the body lay. It could not be their eyesight that thus guided them; for they flew close over the top of the hill, which, it may be presumed, they did not see through. I may mention, by the way, that eagles also abound in the Crimea. I have seen upwards of forty of them soaring at one time high above the house, with all the grace of skaiters describing a figure on the ice. Each one swept slowly round in an immense

circle, without the slightest perceptible movement of pinion; yet the position of the balanced body, with its outstretched wings, would keep gradually veering about, so that now the breast and now the back was brought out gleaming in the sunshine. No dance can compare in grace with that of the eagles.

But after this digression, I must return to the banks of the Belbek, where we perceive vineyards and orchards, as on the Katcha and Alma; while towards the south the hills become more woody and of greater height.

After crossing the river by a good stone bridge, the road divides into two branches; the one to the north side of Sevastopol; the other, very steep and difficult, goes round the bay to Inkerman, crossing the small river Tchernaya, which then flows into the bay, and, after passing through a bleak country, enters Sevastopol at the south side of the harbour. The former is the one most commonly travelled, for, besides being an easier and a better road, it is some miles shorter. It follows the course of the Belbek until it approaches the sea; then ascending a steep hill, and along an undulating plain, we find ourselves on a height opposite the town of Sevastopol.

The northern fort, close to one side of which

the road passes, is enclosed by a deep ditch, lined with stone, and surmounted by an earthen embankment of great thickness. At this side of the bay there are two or three khans, or restingplaces for those who bring goods to the market, a few small houses, several large magazines for provisions, and a guard-house. Boats of all sizes are in constant attendance to convey goods and passengers across the bay, which is here about a During the passage across, we have mile broad. a good view of the white stone batteries, which are built at short distances one from the other, on both sides of the bay, nearly on a level with the water; and further up to the left is a handsome aqueduct, which conveys across a small valley the water required for the docks.

The town lies before us, built on several small hills sloping up from the sea. We shape our course towards the Graffskoi Preestine, or Count's landing-place, where we step on shore, at a well-built quay, from which rises a broad, handsome flight of steps, having at the top a double row of columns, and on each side terraces well supplied with benches for the use of the public. Many a time have I sat on one of these benches for hours together, watching the motley company who arrive every five minutes from the

opposite side, and, darting hither and thither among these clumsy passage-boats, the handsome gigs of the naval officers from the men-of-war in the roads, manned by sailors dressed in scarlet, blue and various coloured shirts. The whole scene was so lively and amusing, that it was with difficulty that I withdrew myself. A band of music plays almost every day upon these terraces, which contributes much to enliven the scene. Uniforms alone are visible; and everything around shows that we are now in a military as well as naval town.

Passing through the colonnade, on our right, extending along the water's edge, is the three-tiered battery named Fort Nicholas; close to which is a plain-looking building, called a palace, from its having been prepared for the Empress Catherine on her visit to Sevastopol. On our left is an enclosure, containing the Admiralty; and facing us, on a corner, as it were, jutting out into the large open space, is a handsome edifice, recently built, which contains the large and spacious assembly-rooms, where weekly balls are held during the winter season. Passing Fort Nicholas, the street leads to the Artillery Bay, the Market-place, and the worst part of the town; while to the left, passing the Admiralty,

is the principal or main street, in which are all the best shops, the cathedral, and the residences of the admiral of the port and of many of the chief families.

Sevastopol has a very good theatre, with two tiers of boxes; and in winter, besides the Russian company of actors, several very good Italian singers are often engaged, who, with the assistance of the soldiers or sailors to fill up the stage, manage to get up an Italian opera very creditably. On one occasion, being seated in a box close to the stage, to see the performance of the opera of Norma, I was not a little amused with the motley group of Druids who filled the stage, and could scarcely contain my risible faculties when, beneath their flowing white tunics, I spied the clumsy boots of the Russian soldier.

A handsome library for the use of the naval officers was built, a few years ago, on an elevated part of the town, to replace one which had been burnt to the ground some time previously. It is furnished very handsomely with sofas, carpets, and other articles from England, and contains an immense collection of books in all languages.

At the head of the inner harbour, to which the main street runs parallel for about half a mile, are hulks used as prison ships, containing many hundreds of unfortunate creatures, loaded with chains, and clad in a motley prison dress to prevent escape. These prisoners are employed in the public works; and truly painful it was to see them, and hear the clanking of their chains, as they passed along the street morning and evening.

Between the harbour and the docks is a hill, the inner half of which is occupied by extensive barracks and a large, well-regulated military hospital; while the other part, which formed a projecting promontory, has been cut down to a few feet above the water, and levelled to form a site for a new Admiralty, to which it is intended to transfer that now established at Nicolaef. The earth which formed this hill was carted away, and served to fill up a deep ravine in the vicinity of the docks.

The docks are built of the white stone of the neighbourhood, edged with granite from the south coast, and are capable of containing five men-of-war. A large filtering-house and tank, supplied with water from the dock canal, five large magazines for provisions, and a three-tiered battery, extend along the side of the promontory which separates the docks from the bay. It is

at these magazines and tank that the ships and men-of-war take in provisions and water.

During one of my frequent visits to Sevastopol, I took a trip in a small boat up the bay to Inkerman, to make an attempt to examine some of those curious cells and caves which chiselled out on the face of the rock. Many of them are too high to be reached by anything but birds or fairies; but after scrambling up a wornaway staircase, cut in the rock, to a considerable height, I found myself in an apartment, off which was another, and then another, with small apertures in the rock for windows, through which I looked, enchanted, no doubt, with the view below, but wondering how I was to get down again. In one of these apartments (larger than the others), which had evidently been a chapel, were the remains of pillars and inscriptions, which, of course, I did not even attempt to decipher.

The Tchernaya Retchka, which in the Russian language means the Black River, is well named, for a dirtier-looking stream than it is near its mouth, I think I never beheld. It has here no pebbly bottom; and its black, muddy-looking banks make one think of nothing else but snakes and all kinds of reptiles. It has one redeeming quality, however—to sportsmen espe-

cially-for the marshy plain through which it winds its slow and sluggish course, affords at certain seasons excellent snipe and duck shooting. From the quantity of earth it is always bringing down, the bay is so shallow at the mouth of the stream, that all of a sudden our boat stuck fast, and the oars were required, not to make head against the water, but to push unceremoniously against a much more solid sub-It is only here, however, that the bay is stance. at all injured by the mud, for at almost any part of it lower down a large man-of-war may lie in deep water close to the shore. On our way, we passed the valley of Ooshakoff, over which the aqueduct is thrown. This is a favourite place of resort for pic-nics and dancing parties, and in a pavilion snugly ensconced among trees the officers of the fleet give annually a ball on the 1st of May.

On a rising ground at the back of Sevastopol, above the inner harbour, is the public promenade, consisting of a number of shady walks, from which there are many beautiful views of the harbour and the lower part of the town. Near the gate at the entrance to this promenade is a large covered reservoir filled with water, from which this part of the town is supplied. Further west, near the Quarantine harbour, is the cemetery,

and still further in the same direction are the remains of the ancient Chersonese. Part of an old wall, and heaps of stones, are all that now remain to mark the site of that once renowned city; everything which had escaped the ravages of time having been destroyed, for the sake of the hewn stones of which its buildings were constructed.

About seven miles to the south of Sevastopol is the Monastery of St. George. It consists of a church and the habitations of a few monks, who have their gardens neatly laid out in terraces facing the sea, to the shores of which there is a steep and difficult descent. The situation is wild and striking, and may suit very well for the monks, one of whom was in the habit of sleeping every night in his coffin; but I should fancy it a very cold, exposed and comfortless abode.

A few miles east of the monastery, the town of Balaclava lies snugly ensconced on the shores of a small bay, which is completely land-locked, and sheltered by high crags from every wind. As the mouth of this bay is so narrow as barely to allow a large vessel to enter, and therefore almost imperceptible from the sea, it was in former times the resort of smugglers; to prevent which, in later years, no vessels at all were al-

lowed to trade there, nor even enter the port, unless as a refuge in stormy weather. The original colonists were Greek pirates, who, having rendered good service to the Empress Catherine in her wars with the Turks, were permitted to settle there, and had certain privileges and lands granted to them upon a military tenure. This colony of Arnaouts is now employed to guard the coast against smuggling, and to maintain the observance of the quarantine regulations. There is nothing interesting in the town itself, except the remains of a wall and a fortress, supposed to have been constructed by the Genoese.

Travelling inland, through an uninteresting country, we descend to the valley of Inkerman, passing on our way above the quarries from which the white stone used in the construction of the docks at Sevastopol was taken, and near a tunnel, four hundred feet long, that has been cut through the rock to allow a passage for the water which supplies the docks, and which is collected in a reservoir a few miles up the valley. Following the course of the Tchernaya Retchka, we arrive at the pretty little village of Tchorgona, with its curious old Genoese tower, from the top of which there is a beautiful view of the sursounding country.

Passing through the narrow, but rich and fertile valley of Shouli, we come in sight of the isolated rock on which are situated the remains of Mangoup Kalé. The greater part of this ancient fortress was protected by the lofty crags and precipices on which it is built; and, on the only side by which it is accessible, there was a high, strongly-built wall, which is now fallen in many places. We ascended the hill by a steep road leading to a gate, by which we entered, and found ourselves in the midst of a mass of ruins; part of a church, of a Jewish synagogue, and of some buildings probably connected with the defences of the town, being all that can accurately be distinguished. At the extremity of the platform, where the rock is the most precipitous, many caves and habitations have been hewn in it. We descended by steps cut in the stone to a large apartment, with passages leading to various other smaller ones, but as it was neither easy nor safe, we did not explore them any further.

The former history of this fortress is little known; but from what remains of it, we may conclude that it has been inhabited by Greeks, Genoese, Jews and Tartars, in rotation. It is said that at the period of the conquest of the Crimea by the Russians, the last body of Tartars who made any

resistance took refuge here, but were soon obliged to surrender, the place being completely commanded by some hills in the vicinity.

The view from Mangoup Kalé is very diversified and beautiful, surrounded as it is by lovely valleys interspersed with hills and rocks, between which, in the distance, the bay and town of Sevastopol on the one side, and the towering range of the south coast hills on the other, are distinctly discernible.

Descending from the heights, we enter the valley of Karolez, than which nothing can possibly be more picturesque;—its pretty villages, its shady gardens, and its sparkling stream, surmounted by fantastically shaped rocks, making it really a little paradise.

Beyond this, crossing the Belbek and Katcha, we traverse a country without interest and devoid of all beauty, until we reach once more Baghtché Sarai.

CHAPTER VI.

ZOUIA—NEUSATZ—FRIEDENTHAL—ROSENTHAL—GERMAN COLONISTS—CULTIVATION OF THE POTATO—SLY MODE OF STEALING THEM—KARA-SOU BAZAAR—CORN MARKET—ESKI KRIM—PALACE OF THE KHANS—COLONY OF BULGARIANS — KAFFA — GENOESE FORTRESS — FOUNTAIN—LAZARETTO—BATHING-HOUSES—SOUDAGH —KERTCH.

STARTING once more from Simpheropol, and crossing the Salghir at the entrance to the town, we continue our course through an uneven country covered with dry grass, and without anything worthy of remark, till we arrive at Zouia, a Russian village, situated upon a rivulet of that name, which flows into the Salghir about fifteen miles from Simpheropol. A little further on to the right, where the country becomes rich and wooded, are three large German colonies, — Neusatz, Friedenthal, and Rosenthal; and here one might suppose oneself on the banks of the Rhine, rather than in this remote corner of Europe.

These colonists, along with several others, had a grant of land from Government at the time that encouragement was given to the settlement of foreigners in the Crimea.

They enjoy certain privileges; having an inspector or judge of their own, by whose decision all disputes among themselves are settled; and in the case of any lawsuit with a Russian, whereby they require to appeal to a Russian tribunal, the duty of this inspector is to see that justice is administered. They are an agricultural people, and still retain their own dress, language and manners, as they existed at the time of their settlement in the Crimea. They intermarry among themselves, and adhere either to the Roman Catholic or Protestant religion.

Their houses are substantially built of stone; their little gardens are tastefully laid out; and, altogether, their abodes have an air of comfort not to be met with beyond the precincts of these German settlements.

They keep large herds of cattle, and supply the markets in the towns with milk, butter and cream, as well as with the earliest vegetables. They are cultivators of the potato to such an extent, that it is even proverbial for German colonists and potatoes to be associated together. Although they have not the early kidney, and other varieties which we have in England, yet, by the month of June, new potatoes begin to be plentiful in the market. The blight, which has so universally prevailed over Europe, has never appeared in the Crimea; at least, up to the winter of 1853, the potatoes were as fine as I have ever seen them.

The Russian peasants are, of late years, following the good example of the German colonists, by cultivating the potato more extensively; but the Tartars, though exceedingly fond of this useful and delightful vegetable, very seldom take the trouble of doing so, preferring to steal them at night. This they do in rather a sly manner: they abstract the potatoes with the hand, as they are planted in rows, and leave the shaw standing; so that if the owner is not lucky enough to discover the theft, the same process is repeated, night after night, until the whole crop nearly disappears.

There is no mistaking these Germans, as they drive to town in their Stuhl-wagen, with their round faces, open countenances, and phlegmatic bearing. The men wear a jacket, something like that worn by our own peasantry; whereas the women still continue the short waist and gigot sleeves of our great-grandmothers.

Few of those who live in the colonies can

speak the Russian language; but of course those who follow different trades in the towns require to learn and speak it fluently. All the principal watchmakers, turners, bootmakers, and blacksmiths in Simpheropol are Germans, and many of them earn a very comfortable livelihood.

After crossing Zouia, the country becomes quite level, extending to the base of the southcoast hills east of Dimirdji, and presenting rich pasture land and fields of corn, until you reach a small circular valley enclosed by hills, through which the Kara-Sou (a Tartar name for the Black River) forces its way to join the Salghir. It is in this basin that the town of Kara-Sou Bazaar, containing fifteen thousand inhabitants, is situated. Its numerous minarets, vying in height with the spiral poplars, and its houses interspersed with orchards, would remind one of Baghtché Sarai, but for the green domes of the Greek churches, which take from its otherwise completely Oriental appearance. In the principal streets are all the khans and coffeehouses; and, all day long, Greeks, Armenians and Tartars may be seen squatted on divans, smoking their chibouks, sipping coffee, and transacting business at the same time. The streets are filthy, and ill paved; and the shops on each side,

defended from the heat of the sun by rude verandahs on wooden pillars, are much more picturesque than elegant.

Here, as in most Eastern towns, separate districts are allotted to the different kinds of merchandise. In one place the shops are full of whips, belts, slippers and pouches, made of embroidered bright red and yellow morocco. Further on, nothing is visible but woollen goods, to which succeed stores of coarse earthenware, which again give place to cooks and bakers, each having his own peculiar district.

Kara-Sou Bazaar possesses the largest corn market in the Crimea; and the price of wheat, rye, corn and barley, all over the country, depends much upon the weekly returns of the current price in this town.

At the entrance to the town are large brick and tile works. The soil is peculiarly suited for this manufacture; and the bricks being reckoned the best and most durable in the Crimea, are chiefly employed in building the Russian stoves so generally in use. There is also an extensive manufactory of morocco leather, the colours of which are remarkably bright and durable. At the eastern outskirts of the town is a large cemetery, and near it, on an eminence, a palace or

spacious dwelling-house, built for the Empress Catherine, but which now belongs to a wealthy Greek. Most of the finest properties, yielding handsome incomes, now belong to Greeks; yet a few of the Moorzahs, or Tartar gentlemen, have still retained possession of some good land in the neighbourhood, where they live quietly in retirement, and are seldom heard of beyond their own boundaries.

Towards the source of the Kara-Sou stretches a succession of hills, covered with wood, in which the hazel is very abundant,—its nuts furnishing a considerable source of revenue to the proprietor.

In autumn, when the nuts are ripe, Greek and Russian women go to the woods to gather them. As they remain there for two or three weeks, they take their food with them, sleep at night in the open air, and return home laden with the fruits of their labours. These nuts are small in size, but very sweet, and are much relished by the Russian and Greek women, who, on all feast-days, when decked out in holiday costume, discuss great quantities of them. The seed of the sunflower also plays a conspicuous part on these occasions,—at least, if one may judge from the quantities of husks, as well as shells, which mark where they have congregated together.

Leaving Kara-Sou Bazaar, and travelling eastward, we pass the ruins of the once large city of Eski Krim, where are still the remains of a palace which formerly belonged to the Crimean Khans. A colony of Bulgarians have now established themselves there, who, along with the Nogay Tartars of the neighbouring villages, occupy themselves in rearing immense herds of cattle, which pasture in this rich and fertile plain.

Continuing our course along the steppe, we descend to the shores of the Black Sea, at Theodosia, or Kaffa, once the most populous and flourishing seaport of the peninsula, but which now only contains about seven thousand inhabi-The first thing that greets one on arriving is a square tower and the ruins of an ancient Genoese fortress, which is connected with the commercial part of the town by a public promenade. This promenade, or Boulevard, situated on a rising ground running parallel with the sea, is laid out in terraces, planted on each side with a few hectic-looking acacia trees, and is overlooked by a row of handsome dwelling-houses. east end of the Boulevard is a round watch-tower, of ancient construction, and still in good preservation. The principal street, facing the sea, contains many good shops, and large magazines

for corn, of which there is always an abundant supply ready for exportation. Two wooden piers jut out into the sea; but of late years the increasing trade with Kertch has much injured the commerce of Theodosia. The anchorage here is good, and the harbour, after those of Sevastopol and Balaclava, is considered the safest in the Crimea, being only affected by the east and northeast winds, which are not much to be dreaded.

The town is inhabited chiefly by Greeks and Armenians, and contains some spacious houses and handsome churches. Some of the fine old mosques are in ruins; one is converted into an Armenian church, another into a museum; and wherever you turn, you see curiously-carved stones, fragments of marble pillars, and other remains of antiquity. The market, which occupies a square in the centre of the town, is well supplied with provisions of every kind, including all the varieties of fish with which the Black Sea abounds. The town is built on the side of a hill; and the streets, which are paved with large round stones, are in many parts very steep, trying not a little the mettle of the horses, the strength of the harness, and the patience of the travellers. A large military hospital stands on the most elevated part of the town, while the efficient troops are always stationed in barracks erected behind the ruins of the old fortress.

The hills which rise up above the town were formerly, in the days of Kaffa's prosperity, covered with wood; now they are bleak and bare, save for the windmills with which their surface is dotted. In former times a deep ditch surrounded the town, serving as a defence, and at the same time carrying off the water which after heavy rains came pouring down from the hills above. This ditch having become gradually filled up, the consequence is, that during heavy rain something very like a river flows down the steep streets, carrying everything before it into the sea.

Of the many fountains which adorned ancient Kaffa, only one remains in a good state of preservation; and as often during the heat of summer the water runs but slowly, it is surrounded from morning till night by people waiting anxiously to fill their pitchers, and many are the quarrels that ensue, if one more eager than the rest slips in before his turn.

At the most south-westerly point of the semicircular bay, are the remains of a very extensive fortress; and beyond this, on a succession of rising grounds intersected by rocky ravines, is the Lazaretto, a large establishment, commodiously laid out in small, well-aired houses. These are surrounded with gardens, and face the sea,—the sight of which is refreshing, and must serve to mitigate the irksomeness of captivity to those shut up within its walls.

Theodosia is the favourite resort of the fashionables from Simpheropol and the surrounding country during the bathing season, and sometimes the town is so full, that scarcely a lodging is to be had. The beach is sandy and excellent for bathing, but the water is sometimes very dirty, in consequence of the wholesale cleansing to which the streets in rainy weather are subjected. No bathing-machines are used, but another plan is adopted, which, from the absence of tides, answers very well. A small wooden pier is constructed for the summer season, jutting out to a convenient distance from the shore, at the end of which is a small room. where the bathers undress; a flight of steps leads down into the water, and over this is an awning of canvas, only open towards the sea, which serves to screen the bathers from the gaze of the passers-by, and from the heat of the sun, which is often overpowering. There are several of these bathing-houses, and the particular hours for ladies and gentlemen are marked by different flags hoisted at the top. The ladies here are coquettish even in the sea, wearing scarlet, blue, or parti-coloured robes, which are much prettier and more comfortable than the ugly things used as bathing-gowns in England.

The Boulevard, or promenade, to which I have alluded, is the great resort in the summer evenings, when the best music the town affords is always in attendance. But the gay time at Theodosia is when the fleet, or part of it, in its summer cruise, puts into port for provisions or water. This happened on one occasion when we were there, and with a party of friends we sailed out to visit the Admiral's ship. We were very kindly received by the Admiral himself, who had commenced his naval career by serving as midshipman in the British fleet, under Lord Nelson; and perhaps to this circumstance we may attribute the more than ordinary politeness with which he treated our party. After taking us all through his vessel,-remarking to me at the same time that we English believe the Russian ships to be made of rotten boards,-he invited us to return in the evening to a ball, at which all the élite of the town were expected to be present.

The evening was beautiful. Not a breath of air was stirring; and our little boat glided smoothly on to the anchorage of the man-of-war, which, in the bright moonlight, looked like an ocean monster. An awning of scarlet, white and many-coloured flags, drawn together into the centre, extended over the whole of the main deck. which really looked very tasteful and gay, and astonished me the more, as I had seen no preparations for all this when visiting the Admiral in Two bands of military music, stathe forenoon. tioned at different sides of the vessel, kept up a continued succession of quadrilles, galops, and polkas, until a late hour, when the company descended to a flotilla of little boats, which were stationed in attendance along the side of the ship. At the moment of departure, the gallant old Admiral had prepared a surprise for us, by causing all the port-holes to be instantaneously illuminated,—the effect of which, it may be believed, was beautiful in the extreme.

About twenty-five miles to the south-west of Theodosia, surrounded by hills—on the summit of one of which are the ruins of another Genoese fortress—is the valley of Soudagh. It is planted with vineyards, from the fruit of which a wine is made, inferior in quality to that of the south

coast, but superior to the wine of the Alma, Katcha, and Belbek. An oblong-shaped grape with a thick skin, peculiar to this part of the country, is sent every year in great quantities to Moscow and the interior of Russia; and to protect them during their long inland journey, they are carefully packed in casks of millet.

Leaving Theodosia, we pass through a bare, bleak country, where, for miles, not a habitation is to be seen,—the land having been abandoned apparently to hares, bustards, and enormous flocks of sea-fowl. Further on, however, a German village, with its well-stocked farm-yard, and here and there a miserable Tartar village, relieve the monotony of that vast and dreary steppe. At length we arrive at the entrance to the peninsula of Kertch, where are still to be seen the remains of a ruined wall and ditch, running across the isthmus from north to south, which are supposed to have served as a defence to the ancient kingdom of the Bosphorus.

On approaching Kertch, one is struck by the immense number of tumuli, similar to those met with all over the steppe, and which, from their appearance and form, are considered to be of the same origin. Every year search is made in one or more of these tumuli, and many vases, coins,

and golden ornaments, distinguished for elegance of form and beauty of workmanship, have been disinterred. Statues also have been found in these tumuli, sculptured in the purest white marble, and in a style worthy of the best days of Grecian art. Many of these now ornament the Museum at St. Petersburg, while others are allowed to be retained in the Museum at Kertch, near where they lay so long concealed.

Kertch, which thirty years ago was a miserable village, has of late years become a handsome town, whose importance is rapidly increasing, and whose inhabitants amount now to about seven thousand. The streets are wide, and well paved; and the handsome houses, arcades and pillared edifices, built of a beautiful white stone (of which there are several large quarries in the neighbourhood), give it quite an imposing appearance. The Governor's house, the custom house and several large magazines, are built on the quay, which terminates in the walls of the Lazaretto, at the entrance to the straits of Yenikali.

Unfortunately, the water is so shallow at Kertch that vessels cannot approach the quay, but require to anchor at a considerable distance; nevertheless, merchants find it more profitable to load their vessels at this port than to risk the

shallow water and frequent winds of the Sea of Azoff. Extensive fisheries have been established all along the coast, at which multitudes of sturgeons and herrings are taken. From the roe of the former caviare is made in great quantities; the latter are salted, and taken into the interior of the country, or else exported.

Every year commerce is increasing; rich merchants are establishing themselves there; and everything leads one to suppose that, ere long, Kertch will become a large, commercial, and flourishing city.

CHAPTER VII.

EUPATORIA—SAAK—MUD BATHS—THE STEPPE—MIRAGE
—COLUMNS OF DUST—TARTAR ROBBER—MAJARS—
TARTAR VILLAGES—ARMANSKOI BAZAAR—SIVASH, OR
PUTRID SEA—SALT LAKES—PEREKOP.

WE shall now turn northwards; and before we traverse the long and dreary steppe, we shall take a peep, in passing, at Eupatoria.

Kuslof, or Eupatoria, was formerly a considerable Tartar town, and rivalled Baghtché Sarai in the number of its mosques, its baths, and its bazaars. It is situated in a large open bay, exposed to every wind, and as it thus affords no security as a harbour to vessels, its commerce is very inconsiderable. A pretty large wooden pier juts out into the sea, but the water is here so shallow, that even the steamboats which ply between Odessa and Kertch, and which touch at Eupatoria, require to anchor at a considerable distance from the shore. The town is inhabited by Armenians, Karaite Jews and Tartars. Many of the former have good houses in the principal street, facing the sea; but the rest of the streets

are narrow and deserted. The inhabitants are chiefly occupied in the manufacture of a kind of felt, or in embroidering on morocco leather; and among them are some skilful jewellers, who make very pretty silver ornaments, which are held greatly in repute in all parts of the Crimea.

At the entrance to the town, a number of windmills stand along the coast like sentinels, adding the creaking of their flapping sails to that of an occasional carayan of majars, drawn by camels or oxen, and laden with the delicious water melon of the steppe. Everywhere in the neighbourhood of Eupatoria, the soil is impregnated with salt; and at a short distance from the town, the small village of Saak enjoys a high reputation on account of its mud baths. This little village is situated on the banks of a saline lake of the same name, the evaporisation of whose waters, during the heat of the months of June and July, leaves behind a salt, black mud. About the end of July, as this mud becomes thoroughly heated by the sun, it is considered the best season to take these baths; and so efficacious are they reported to be in the cure of rheumatic affections and cutaneous diseases, that people flock thither from all parts of Russia. I never had the curiosity to indulge in a bath myself, but those

who have been subjected to this temporary interment, report that the sensations are far from agreeable. A number of gipsy men and women are always in attendance upon the bathers in their several apartments. A hole is dug in the mud sufficient to cover the bather in a reclining position, leaving only the head above ground, as a kind of living tombstone. The weight and heat of the mud on the chest renders the breathing often so difficult, that at first a feeling of suffocation is produced, and the invalid can only bear it a few minutes. After repeating it, however, and lengthening the bath by degrees, sometimes even an hour is passed comfortably in these little graves. On being uncovered, the patient steps into the lake to wash off the mud, and then returns home, wrapped in a warm dressing-gown, to drink cup after cup of hot tea to promote perspiration. Of course these baths cannot be taken every day, as they are extremely weakening; but you may easily suppose that where there is sufficient strength of frame to stand such a baking and boiling, rheumatism may thus be coaxed out of the system. medical man is always resident at Saak to regulate the length of the baths, and to attend to the patients who require his assistance.

The only good accommodation for strangers is a large house, where apartments can be hired; but its dimensions are quite insufficient for the numbers who flock there every summer, and who have to content themselves with such accommodation as the poor miserable village affords. I have often pictured to myself the number of neat little cottages that would have been built had such a place been discovered on our own shores; but here no one is enterprising enough to do anything of the kind, and year after year passes on without any apparent increase of convenience or accommodation for strangers.

As we go northward, the steppe assumes its grand characteristic, presenting a huge circle of flatness, where nothing is seen but the over-arching sky and the conical-shaped tumuli, which rise every here and there, like monster molehills, on the surface of the plain. These steppes are very beautiful in spring, when the wide-spread green of the young grass becomes converted into a sea of wild flowers, yielding to the wind, which sways backwards and forwards their masses of varied colour, like waves on the shore. Fancy whole miles of purple larkspur gleaming in the sunshine, intersected with patches of bright scarlet poppy; and the pink-coloured wild

peach shrub, with gaudy tulips and crocuses, contributing also their fine contrasting hues. But, alas! these beauties soon vanish at the approach of summer, and are succeeded by a tall, feathery grass, such as I have often seen grown in gardens in England. Fortunately, this grass is confined to certain districts, for sheep cannot pasture where it grows, in consequence of the subtle art which its seed possesses of working its way into their skin.

In summer the Crimea becomes literally baked with heat; and by the end of June the grass on the steppe is yellow and parched. It is at this season that the mirage is most frequent, and it really helps to beguile the way by presenting a temporary excitement to the traveller. Driving along the steppe, suddenly something seems to arise like a city, glittering through a mist in the distance; gradually an appearance of towers and trees comes out more clearly; as you advance, new spires arise, and trees, bridges, and rivers appear,-a picturesque combination. By-and-by they sink into confusion; and when you arrive at where stood the city of enchantment, all has vanished away, and you find but the waving of the parched grass as before.

From the tear and wear of the clayey soil

during the long droughts, which often last for months during summer, there is a great accumulation of dust. This gives rise to another phenomenon, of frequent occurrence on the steppe, reminding one of waterspouts on the sea, but filled with dust instead of water. Suppose the great flat steppe stretched out beneath the blue sky-nothing visible-no breath of air apparently stirring-the whole plain an embodiment of sultriness, silence and calmness-when gradually rise in the distance six or eight columns of dust, like inverted cones, two or three hundred feet high, gliding and gliding along the plain in solemn company; they approach, they pass, and vanish again in the distance, like huge genii on some preternatural errand. I can assure the reader that it is really a singular and sublime sight.

These steppes have their romance also,—a Tartar Rob Roy occasionally infesting them. About six years ago, a chivalrous Tartar robber, called Alime, struck terror into all the inhabitants of the country, and caused the government authorities to make many a fruitless excursion in search of him. He was armed with a dagger and pistols; and, as he invariably appeared at the place where he was least expected, his victims were so paralysed with astonishment, that they

offered no resistance. Many were the wonderful tales told of Alime; how he faced alone the ten or twelve occupants of a diligence; how he made them all tumble out, one after the other, and give up their all; and how, instead of taking it all himself, he took from those who had plenty, and gave to those who had none, reserving to himself a per centage, as it were, on the transaction. He was not known to have wounded or killed any one; but every one felt afraid to leave the shelter of his own roof while he was abroad. He always rode on horseback; and on one occasion his horse was killed by a shot from a traveller he was going to rob, and he himself wounded. After this his health began to give way, and he could no longer pursue his avocation; so he wandered about from sheepfold to sheepfold, till at last a shepherd, with whom he had taken refuge, betrayed him to the authorities. He was taken into custody, punished with the knaout, and sent to Siberia, where he now is. Fortunately, these heroes are very rare; yet no traveller can esteem himself safe without his pistols and a sharp lookout.

Although it is difficult for an unpractised eye to know the exact direction in which he is going on these vast plains, the Tartars are so well accustomed to them, that every tumulus, and many minute objects which would be passed unnoticed by others, serve as landmarks to them.

To all of the principal villages there are tracks, if not roads; but in winter, when the ground is covered with snow, all trace is destroyed, and the drivers and horses are left, much like mariners without a compass, to find their way as best they can. Scarcely a winter passes but there are instances of travellers getting confused, losing their way, and spending hour after hour on this trackless plain, exposed to all the violence of the tempest, without knowing whither to turn for refuge against the blast; and many an intoxicated driver sleeps thus his last sleep on the snow.

The snow, you may easily conceive, drifts terribly along these plains, and when a flock of sheep is overtaken by a storm the poor creatures get quite bewildered, and very naturally turn from the cutting north wind to escape the blinding clouds of snow, in vain. As the tempest thickens and sweeps along, they are borne before it, they cannot see whither; and often a flock, numbering many thousands, is forced to run on and on, amongst the whirling drift, till they are drowned in the sea. More than one proprietor has thus been ruined by a single storm.

As there are no springs of water in the steppe, wells are provided for the sustenance of the flocks. They are dug from twenty to some hundred feet deep; the water is always more or less brackish; and, as they are not numerous, they are exceedingly precious, and remind one of the anxiety occasioned by the stopping of the wells in the pastoral times of the Old Testament. Often at these wells, caravans composed of thirty or forty majars, drawn by camels or oxen, halt on their weary journey, and the poor, tired beasts of burden are allowed to rest or stroll about in freedom; while their Tartar masters, sitting in the shade of the vehicles, smoke their chibouks, or take their scanty meal.

The majar is a vehicle something between a cart and a waggon, mounted on four wheels. The wheels and axles are wholly made of wood; and as the Tartar esteems grease too precious to be bestowed on anything but himself, you may fancy what a tremendous screwing, creaking and screaming, accompanies a long line of heavily-laden majars. When one has been accustomed to the silence of the steppe, it is almost unbearable to encounter one of these caravans; nevertheless, at a distance, the noise of the many wheels becomes strangely transformed, and is not

unpleasing. I remember, when I was new to the country, thinking that I heard the swelling and intermingling of instruments of a military band, but as it came gradually on louder and louder, to my exceeding surprise, the bursts of martial music resolved themselves into the unmistakable screaming of a band of majars.

The jerboa, a pretty little creature like a kangaroo, from five to eight inches in height, inhabits the steppe and burrows in the ground; a flock of stately bustards occasionally stalk about to give life to the scene; but the most picturesque objects of all are the immense flocks of sheep, and herds of horses, cattle and camels, wending towards a distant well, or bleating and lowing to each other whilst making homewards to the village, as the twilight settles down.

The properties on the steppe are generally very large, averaging from ten to twenty thousand dissetines;* but from the want of water, the land is only valued at about ten shillings the dissetine. The proprietors derive their chief income from their herds of cattle and horses, the wool of their sheep, and the immense crops of grain which they grow for exportation. When there has been rain during the spring or early

^{*} The dissetine is about two acres and a half.

part of summer, the steppe grass makes very good hay, which is conveyed to great distances for sale; but in common years the proprietor can cut barely a sufficient supply of hay for the use of his own sheep and cattle before the burning sun of summer scorches it up.

The Tartars of the villages upon the different properties work a few days in the year for their landlord, as rent for their house and pasture land; and land is given them to plough and sow, upon condition of their giving a proportion of the produce to the proprietor. steppe Tartar villages are far from picturesque. They consist of a few wretched hovels made of wicker work, plastered over with clay, without a tree about them: and many of them are in a very dilapidated condition. The houses of the proprietors are made of unburnt brick, and are very comfortable and warm; but the Tartars never think of copying anything that might better their condition, but live on, in their miserable dwellings, that make one shiver to look at them.

One peculiarity of the steppe is the total want of stones; even the Salghir and Kara-Sou, as they pass through the steppe, before they reach the Putrid Sea, lose their gravelly and pebbly bottom, and assume the appearance of muddy canals, rather than mountain streams.

But before leaving the steppe, I wish to bring before you the peculiar situation of the traveller. He is galloping along, galloping along, and yet never appears one whit changed in his position. In vain Jehu cracks his whip and shouts to his horses, which are harnessed four abreast, and really seem to be making wonderful exertionstill no apparent way is made; and the traveller seems to sit for ever the centre point in an immense circle of desert. The novelty of such a situation is not without interest; yet, it must be confessed, it soon grows very wearisome; and the northward-bound traveller cannot but experience a sense of relief when the sea breaks upon his view, with the assurance that he is approaching Armanskoi Bazaar.

This village, inhabited chiefly by Armenians, Jews and Tartars, contains some very good shops, and a well-furnished market; but the country around is very desolate, as it always is in the vicinity of the salt lakes.

The largest and most productive of these saline lakes extends from the southern extremity of the isthmus of Perekop along the shores of the Sivash, or Putrid Sea. The salt, which is conveyed to Russia in carts, forms a most important part of the revenue derived by the Government from the Crimea. In favourable years, large quantities of salt are deposited; it is gathered in carts, which enter the lake for that purpose, and if not sold immediately, it is placed in heaps on the shore of the lake, in readiness for any purchasers who may arrive.

The lakes in the neighbourhood of Eupatoria furnish large quantities of salt of excellent quality, which is chiefly consumed in the country; while that from the lakes near Theodosia and Kertch forms an article of commerce with the shores of the Black Sea.

Judging from their appearance and situation, one would suppose that these saline lakes had originally been connected with the sea, and had gradually been isolated by the formation of banks of sand and earth. When the wind blows from the Putrid Sea during the heat of summer, there is a strong and disagreeable effluvium, which is very unpleasant, but far from being prejudicial to health; indeed, the ordinary fever of the Crimea is scarcely known where it prevails.

About two miles and a half from Armanskoi Bazaar is the little village of Perekop, inhabited chiefly by Government *employés* and those con-

nected with the salt lakes in the neighbourhood. The village is entered on the Russian side by a bridge, which crosses a wide and deep ditch cut across the isthmus. It is this ditch which has probably given its name to the isthmus—Perekop, in the Russian language, signifying a ditch cut across the road, or between two seas.

The principal entrance to the Crimea is by this isthmus, which separates the Black Sea from the Putrid Sea, and is about seventeen miles in length and five in breadth; but there is still another, which is now very much used, along the tongue of Arabat. This narrow stripe of land, seventy miles in length, which runs between the Sivash, or Putrid Sea, and the Sea of Azoff, is separated from the mainland at the northern extremity by a narrow channel. There are several post stations along this road; and at the southern extremity, where it is joined to the mainland, stands a fortress, which is in a very ruinous state. Not many years ago a bridge was constructed to complete the communication between the Russian mainland and the Crimea; and by this bridge the chief intercourse between the eastern part of the Crimea and Russia is now carried on.

A few years ago, several rich and influential men in Russia proposed to form themselves into a company for the purpose of making a railway from Moscow to Theodosia, and the line chosen as the most advantageous was along the tongue of Arabat. This plan was presented to the Emperor for approval; but, as it was his wish that a railway should first be made between Moscow and Odessa, the execution of the company's projected line was postponed.

CHAPTER VIII.

CRIMEAN CLIMATE — SEVERITY OF WINTER — HEAT OF SUMMER—PREVALENCE OF AGUE—VALUE OF QUININE — SMALL-POX COMMON — UNCERTAINTY OF CROPS — TARTAR PLOUGH—PRIMITIVE HARROW—ROTATION OF CROPS — MELON GARDEN — WATER MELON—CAMELS — HORSES—NATIVE CATTLE—SHEEP—FORESTS.

HAVING thus hastily run through the most important parts of the Crimea, I shall now try to give an idea of the natural productions of the country, and the present state of agriculture there; but before doing so, shall say a word or two about the climate.

If we are to believe the aged Tartars, the winters in former times were much less rigorous, and the droughts of summer less frequent, than what is now experienced; but whether this is really the case, or whether it is merely the result of that feeling so common to the aged, which leads them to look back on the past as the good old times, it is now difficult to decide.

The weather during the winter is as changeable as that of the summer is settled and steady. The most severe cold which I have felt or heard of in the neighbourhood of Simpheropol, to which part of the Crimea the following remarks apply, was twenty degrees below zero (Fahrenheit), and the greatest heat a hundred degrees above it; but these are extremes, which are of rare occurrence and of short duration.

At Sevastopol, the cold is generally five or six degrees less than at Simpheropol; while at the south coast there is a difference of from twenty to twenty-five degrees.

The coldest weather is during the month of January and part of February, when there is generally snow, hard frost, or, what is more difficult to bear than either-a pretty severe frost accompanied by a strong north wind, which penetrates through flannels and furs, and forces the traveller to retreat to the shelter of a well-heated room. I have often been amused with the venerable look which such weather gives to men of all ages, by the sudden change of the colour of the whiskers and moustache when exposed to its blasts,—the particles of frozen breath which adhere to them making them quite white. As for myself, my veil used to be one sheet of ice, and could almost stand upright when I took it off. When the thermometer

is about zero, the nostrils stiffen, and to some the breathing is rendered difficult.

The snow seldom lies long on the ground, and the most ungenial and trying seasons are relieved by frequent intervals of fine weather. During the latter part of the month of February, immense numbers of starlings begin to appear, and are welcomed as the harbingers of spring. They always assemble near the habitations of men, and, being reckoned birds of good omen among the Russian peasantry, small houses, like dove-cots, are erected on poles close to their dwellings, ready for their reception.

During the stormy and blustering month of March, the meadows are covered with the sweet violet, which fills the air with its delicious perfume; and the fine warm weather, which sets in about the middle of April, again in its turn clothes the plains with flowers of every shade and hue; while the crocus, the primrose, and the lily of the valley, grow in all the woods, as large in size and as sweet in perfume as those in gardens in England.

It is at this season that the farmer sighs for rain, which is often denied him; and upon which the success of his crops so much depends. I used to allege, that when a little cloud appeared on the horizon, hundreds of proprietors watched its progress, and even beckoned to it to come their way.

In the hot season, which continues during June, July and August, the thermometer ranges between eighty and a hundred degrees in the shade; during which months the crops are all cut down, the grass is burnt up, and everything looks oppressed with heat. For weeks, sometimes for months, there is not a drop of rain at this season; the very fountains and rivers become almost dry. The earth, which is literally Baked, is covered with fissures; and the dust on the high roads becomes intolerable. With what delight, then, one hails the refreshing rains, which usher in the delicious coolness of autumn! the most invigorating season of the year in this part of the world; and which lasts sometimes, with short interruptions, till the beginning of December.

The heat during the long summer days, in the districts situated to the north of the mountains, is nearly as great as that experienced in the southern part; but whilst in the latter the nights are sultry and oppressive, to the north they are comparatively fresh and cool.

The hot winds of the Asiatic deserts, having

traversed the Black Sea, occasionally sweep over the Crimean steppes: the air then becomes stifling, everything droops, and, though the sun is generally veiled at these times, the heat is intense.

On one occasion, whilst seated at my work in an open verandah with a northern exposure, during one of these hot winds, my face, hands, and neck were completely blistered by it.

Nor are the visits of these hot winds confined exclusively to the summer. I remember one day in particular, towards the end of November, the forenoon was rather cool; about mid-day a breeze sprang up, which before evening increased to a gale; and, as the wind augmented, the heat became greater, till, at ten o'clock at night, the thermometer attained its maximum of eighty degrees.

At all times, but especially during summer and autumn, the inhabitants of the Crimea are subject to attacks of intermittent fever or ague, and various causes are assigned for its greater prevalence at these seasons: such as eating fruit which is over-ripe; indulging too freely in the delicious melons, which grow so abundantly everywhere; drinking cold water immediately after partaking of fruit or fish; or from exposure to the cool night-air, which succeeds the scorch-

ing heat of day. It is met with as frequently on the south coast as in the steppe country; but, contrary to what one might expect, it is less prevalent along the shores of the Putrid Sea than elsewhere.

This disease was formerly very fatal; and even when eventually cured, after a long and tedious treatment, the debility produced by it was often the precursor of other maladies; but since the use of the sulphate of quinine became known, there is scarcely a case which does not speedily vield to this valuable medicine. There is still, however, a sort of ague which, if not cured, immediately proves fatal at the third paroxysm; but, fortunately, this severe form is extremely rare. From the high price of the sulphate of quinine, many of the poorer inhabitants cannot obtain it, so they resort to various cures, all of which work more or less upon the imagination of the patient, and often produce the desired effect. Of these I shall mention two, which came under my own observation. A poor Russian woman who had for some months been subject to the periodical attacks of this malady, was told by some one-in whose advice she had confidence, no doubt-that if she would hang up an egg-shell in her chimney, and wish the ague to pass into it, it would go immediately; to all this she strictly adhered, and, strange to say, the ague left her from that time. A servant-girl of my own, also, whose constitution had been debilitated by frequent attacks of this malady in rather a severe form, and to whom I had unsuccessfully administered the usual doses of the sulphate of quinine, was so impressed with the idea that she was not to recover, that I resolved myself to turn sorcerer, and try what I could do. With a grave face, then, I told her that I had something which I was persuaded would cure her, if she would place implicit faith in the result, which having promised to do, I proceeded with my incantations in the following manner:—

Having written a few words on a slip of paper, which I carefully sewed in a piece of silk and fastened round her neck, I covered her all over with a sheet and repeated a few phrases in very good English (which, of course, she did not understand), at the same time enveloping her in a cloud of smoke from the incense which I caused to be burned at the side of her bed. The effect was almost instantaneous: from that moment she improved, was soon in good health, and continued to wear the talismanic bit of paper as long as it held together.

Another disease which is very common in the villages is small-pox; many of the Tartars especially being totally blind or disfigured by its marks. The Russian Government has done a great deal to encourage vaccination, and to facilitate the operation; but the Tartars have a prejudice against it, and the Russians do not trouble themselves about it unless the medical man, lancet in hand, presents himself at their cottages for the purpose.

The climate of the Crimea is not so favourable to the pursuit of agriculture, as that of the provinces to the north of Perekop.

The quantity of snow which falls during winter is small; so that the earth, pulverised by the alternate action of frost and thaw, is often carried by the wind from the roots of the winter crops, leaving them bare and exposed to be injured by the action of the cold, or parched by the heat of the sun, according to the state of the weather. The drought which too often prevails in spring and the earlier part of summer, is another cause of frequent failure in the crops, which linger on for some time, till finally, unable to resist the burning rays of the sun, they gradually wither away. From what I myself have seen, and from the reports of the natives, I am inclined to say

that, of four years, the average of the crops may be considered as one good crop, two very inferior, and one a failure; but of course this does not happen in regular rotation.

The soil of the steppes is in general a rich black earth; further to the south, it is in some places stony, and in others of a whitish clay, with a thin layer of earth on the surface; while in the valleys, it consists of a rich loam mixed here and there with sand and gravel.

The Tartar plough is a very heavy, clumsy instrument, supported on two wooden wheels, to which are harnessed four or five pair of oxen for new land, and only two or three pair for land which has lately been ploughed. One man guides the plough, and a boy is required to drive each two pair of oxen. The furrows are very shallow and very uneven, reminding one of the strokes in a child's first copy-book. The seed, which is sown broadcast, and is almost invariably scattered too thickly, is covered over by means of a harrow of very primitive construction, being made of a log of wood with a row of wooden teeth, to which branches of thorn are attached, and upon which turf or large stones are placed, to give it more weight.

But the Russians and Germans perform their

work in a manner infinitely superior to that of the Tartars, and are furnished with much better instruments. The usual rotation of crops is as follows: the first year, they sow millet; the second, wheat; the third, rye; and the fourth, barley or oats. The land is then allowed to lie fallow, producing nothing but weeds, which in a few years disappear before a rising crop of natural grass, excellent for pasture or for hay.

When ground is ploughed up for the first time, it is customary for the Tartars, before commencing the routine of crops, to make a boshtan, or melon garden, where they establish themselves and family, as well as labourers-if they are rich enough to have any-in huts made of hurdles. covered with felt or hay. They begin their labour, by preparing with the hoe small beds, about the size and shape of a dinner-plate, four feet distant one from the other, in each of which they sow a few melon or water-melon seeds; and between these beds, rows of kidney beans, onions, or other vegetables which require little water. From this time to the end of autumn, there is continual occupation for all hands, in weeding, hoeing, guarding, gathering, and selling the fruit. has frequently struck me as a wonderful arrangement of Providence, that the water melon, so full of juice, so refreshing, so harmless, and so necessary, constituting, as it does, one of the chief articles of diet among the natives during the summer, should be found flourishing in the greatest perfection in the driest soil. Besides the before-mentioned grains, the Tartars cultivate buckwheat, flax, and tobacco,—the latter very extensively, but it is inferior to that grown in Turkey and Syria.

The primitive mode of treading out the corn is still adopted here; and for that purpose a large circular space of ground is cleared and levelled, then watered, and trodden down till it becomes as hard as stone. A thick stake is driven into the centre, round which the sheaves of corn are placed in circles, till the whole space is covered; each sheaf being unfastened as it is put down. A long cord, which is fastened to the stake in the centre, extends to the inner horse, to which again are attached three, four, or more horses; and these are driven round at a trot, the circle gradually lessening as the cord twists round the stake, till the whole space is trodden over; when the line of horses is wheeled round, and the outer one being attached to the centre cord, they are driven back again. This process is repeated till the grain is separated from the straw, which is then removed; and the grain and chaff being collected in a heap, are tossed up into the air with wooden spades, when the wind carries off the chaff, and the grain being left clean, is collected in sacks.

The immense extent of steppe land which is covered with excellent pasture, is well calculated for the rearing of cattle; therefore the proprietors of these plains derive their chief income from their herds of camels, horses, cattle and sheep.

The Crimean camels are very large and powerful, of a dingy-brown colour, with a face that has very much the expression and form of that of the sheep; and though they are generally mild and gentle, yet they require to be approached with caution, as they are sometimes vicious, and their bite is very severe.

The camel is particularly useful on long journeys; its superior height and great strength enable it to drag a heavily-laden waggon through muddy roads quite impracticable for horses or oxen.

The Crimean horses are small, and not remarkable for beauty of form; but they are capable of enduring great fatigue, and, being unaccustomed to the artificial life of warm stables,

are exceedingly hardy, and not liable to many diseases. After a hard day's work in summer, the horse is usually turned out on the steppe to take care of himself; but in winter, when the weather is severe, he is indulged with the shelter of a stable or shed, and is furnished with hay, oats, or barley.

The horses in the mountainous parts of the country are smaller, and in general prettier, than those of the steppe. They are very sure-footed, and clamber up the rocky and difficult mountain paths like goats; but it is difficult to purchase them of the pure Tartar breed which was formerly so celebrated in the country.

The native horned cattle are small, and of a grey colour. The oxen are strong and active, and when well fed their beef is excellent; but the cows give so little milk, that German cows which were imported many years ago and are now acclimated, are generally kept by those who can afford to buy them. In the mountain districts, oxen are superseded by buffaloes—ugly-looking creatures of a blackish colour, of great strength—which delight in the warm weather to roll themselves in the mud of any pond or pool they may be fortunate enough to fall in with.

There are two distinct races of sheep in the

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Crimea—the original Tartar sheep, and the merino, which is now become perfectly naturalised in the country.

The Tartar sheep have one Eastern characteristic-in the enormous size of their tails, which sometimes seem really a burden to the poor animals. Their wool is very inferior in quality, and less in quantity, than that of the merino; but the expense of rearing them is so much less, that it is considered a disputed point which is the most profitable in the end. They are subject to very few diseases, require a very slight shelter even in the most severe weather, and are never supplied with hav unless the snow is very deep, for they are accustomed to scrape with their feet till they get at the grass below. The wool of the Tartar sheep is chiefly bought up for the Russian market. The mutton is excellent, and the fat of the tail is considered a great delicacy by the natives, playing as important a part in their feasts as the fat of the turtle in our civic banquets. The skins of the lambs are very much esteemed, particularly those of the grey lambs which pasture in the steppe near Eupatoria, and which are said to deteriorate when the animals are removed to any other part of the country; the little black curly skins are next in value, and are to be found all over the Crimea. The flesh of the lamb is exceedingly delicate.

The Spanish sheep, which were introduced into the Crimea about forty years ago, require, on the contrary, a well-built fold and a good supply of hay and oats, to keep them in good health during winter. Their mutton is coarse; but their wool brings a high price, and is chiefly exported from Kherson and Odessa; while a small portion only is purchased for the Russian manufactories.

A considerable number of goats generally form the vanguard to a flock of sheep in the steppe; but on the south coast they were found to be so destructive to young plantations, that the keeping of them has been prohibited by law.

Owing to the great consumption of wood for fuel, and the careless way in which in former times it was cut—the greater part of a tree being often left to rot—the forests in the Crimea have suffered severely, and in many parts of the country they have been entirely destroyed. On all the lower parts, and on the hills the most easy of access, it is common to cut down the trees every seven or eight years: the consequence is, that there is scarcely anything to be seen but brushwood; but the mountains are covered with

forests of trees, which grow to an immense thickness, and many of which make excellent timber for building, or for the uses of the upholsterer.

I cannot attempt to give a list of all the different species of trees, but I will mention a few which occur to me: the oak (which does not grow so luxuriantly as in England), the pine, the beech, the ash, the elm, the linden tree, the yew, the turpentine tree, the juniper tree,-all these, and many others of which I do not know the names, are here to be found; and it is impossible to conceive anything more beautiful than the effect produced by the bright and varied tints of the foliage in the autumn season. The pear, the crab-apple, the plum, the kisil, or cornel cherry, the filbert, and common hazel nut,-all grow wild; whilst, twining to the top of the highest trees, the wild vine, the hop, and clematis hang in graceful festoons from every branch.

But were I to give a detailed account of the many varieties of fruit trees and vines which are cultivated in the Crimea, it would occupy too much space; so I shall conclude for the present by asking the reader to recall all the sweetest and most delicious fruits he has ever tasted, or that

Covent Garden Market ever contained, and he will then only have an idea of what the poorest inhabitant of this fertile peninsula may enjoy, at the trifling cost of a few halfpence.

CHAPTER IX.

DEER SHOOTING—ABUNDANCE OF GAME—TARTAR MODE
OF TAKING QUAILS—BIRDS OF PREY—WOLVES AND
FOXES—HAMSTER—BIRDS—LOCUSTS—DEVASTATION
CAUSED BY THEM—STARLINGS—TRADITION ABOUT
THEM—DESTRUCTIVE CATERPILLARS—WANT OF CAPITAL THE GREAT OBSTACLE TO IMPROVEMENT.

PERHAPS it may seem going beyond the sphere of a lady's acquirements to talk or write about game and field sports; nevertheless, I should think this little sketch of the Crimea incomplete were I to leave even this unnoticed.

Once at least, during the winter season, my husband and five or six friends were in the habit of going for a few days to shoot deer in the mountains, and great and many were the preparations made for these excursions.

A cart filled with hay for their horses, another with provisions for themselves and attendants, and all the necessary utensils for cooking and partaking of these provisions, had to be packed and sent on to the place of rendezvous, which was in general a rude hut used by the soldiers, who during the summer season take up their abode there for the purpose of making charcoal. A number of Tartars from the neighbouring villages were engaged to drive the game to where the sportsmen, at some distance one from the other, were stationed in a line along the hill.

Frightened at the continued shouting, the stags and roebucks bounded forwards before their pursuers, little thinking of the warm reception they were to meet with; and many were the poor creatures who fell victims on these occasions. I cannot attempt to give you a description of the many incidents which lend enchantment to such an expedition, never having been one of the party; all I can say is, that, on their return, venison was so abundant at home, that after sending roebucks to all our friends, the cook and I were puzzled what to do with the remainder.

The non-existence of the pheasant in the Crimea is remarkable, as it is found all over the Caucasus, and in the island of Taman. Many proprietors have tried to introduce them into the country, but have not yet succeeded. Partridges, woodcocks, quails, snipes and ducks, in endless variety and of beautiful plumage, are everywhere

in abundance; while the great and little bustard, and numerous kinds of *koulaki* (of which I do not know the English name) abound in the steppe country.

Although a few quails always remain in the country, they are only plentiful in autumn, when enormous quantities arrive, and repose themselves before crossing the sea in their flight to the south. The Tartars do not let slip so good an opportunity of laying in a provision of them; and one of their ways of taking them is rather curious. They make use of a thick stick, on which the twigs are left, six or eight inches long; this they throw at the quail, giving it a circular motion, so that the bird seldom escapes being struck down either by the stick or by the twigs attached to it. No doubt the game would be much more plentiful were it not for the birds of prey which abound: eagles, vultures, falcons, kites, hawks, magpies, ravens and owls-all conspire to devour the unhappy birds, or to destroy their eggs; indeed, it is wonderful that so many escape.

There are not many species of animals of prey. The principal are the wolf and the fox; the former of which remains during the greater part of the year hid in the most inaccessible forests on the mountains, only venturing down near the villages in winter in search of food. The Tartar sheep are the chief objects of his attention; and as they are usually collected for the night in some sheltered valley, or in an enclosure made by branches of thorn twisted between stakes, they are much exposed to his attacks, and the constant vigilance is required, both of the shepherd and his dogs, to guard against them. No sooner does the marauder spring among the sheep, than they disperse on all sides, and a scene of indiscriminate slaughter ensues; for the wolf, not content with one victim, attacks, disables, or kills one after another, till he is forced to beat a retreat; and as there are usually several of these animals together, the damage done in a single night is often very serious.

When a mounted Tartar discovers a wolf on the steppe, where there are neither woods nor hills to which it can fly for shelter, he pursues it at a gallop, and continues the chase, joined by any one who may chance to be near, till the wolf is fairly run down, when a few blows with the nogaika, or heavy Tartar whip, soon puts him out of pain. He then sells the skin at the nearest town, and takes the head to the nearest police-station, where a sum equal to a guinea is

paid to him as head-money. During the hot summer weather, these wolves sometimes go mad, and, entering the villages, attack indiscriminately men and dogs; the latter being a fierce race, very like the wolf, and whose name is legion. Fortunately, however, when mad, these dogs always run off from their villages to the steppe, and end their existence there.

The fox in the Crimea has not the honour of being followed by the dashing red coat of the huntsman and his numerous dogs, as in England; but is ingloriously shot or trapped for the sake of his skin.

There is a small animal called the hamster, of a brown colour, with black and yellow stripes, altogether not unlike the guineapig, which is very destructive to grain and the roots of many vegetables. This little creature burrows four or five feet underground; on each side of the passage which leads to the main apartment, are several small chambers, serving as granaries to lay by a store of provisions for winter. At the extremity of the passage is a large apartment, in which the animal itself lives, and to which there is always a second entry.

In one hole which I saw dug open, were found upwards of forty pounds' weight of potatoes, although it was early in the autumn; and I have been told that sometimes as much as a hundred pounds' weight of corn has been found in a single burrow.

The feathered tribe is numerous, comprising the crane, the heron, the blue crow, the beeeater, the hoopoo, the starling, the oriol, the nightingale, and all the smaller birds we have in England; and the bright-coloured plumage of the hoopoo, the oriol, and the bee-eater, as they sit perched on the trees or flying in the sunshine, is really beautiful.

I think there now only remains for me to make a few remarks about the locusts and caterpillars, which sometimes appear in immense numbers for several successive years, laying waste the country and carrying ruin and devastation in their train. Several species of locusts have appeared at different times, of various sizes and colours, some of which attack the vine, others the herbage, or the shrubs and trees; but the most common, and perhaps the most destructive, is a small locust, the *Gryllus devastator*. It is about an inch and a quarter long; its body is of a brown colour with dark spots; its legs are red; but the upper part, as well as the wings, are spotted over with brown. This species seems to be indigenous in

the Crimea; though it is generally in such small numbers that it almost escapes notice, yet after gradually increasing during a series of years, it at length appears in such swarms as to threaten destruction to the crops over the whole country.

The young ones begin to make their appearance in the month of May, and are about the size of small flies. For a few days they remain pretty stationary, gaining strength to commence their march, which they do in immense masses, eating the tender blades of grass as they advance. As they increase in size, their appetite becomes more voracious, and their progress is marked by the desert they leave behind them.

I have often watched them as they attacked a field of young corn or barley: before them all was fresh and verdant as in spring; then a broad waving line of black, behind which the earth was left bare, as if it had been scorched by the fire of heaven. I may here mention that, until they are full grown, the locusts have no wings; they either walk at a slow pace, or progress by a succession of leaps; and in the latter case, when seen from a little distance, you might suppose them to be very small frogs. They continue their course day after day, assembling in dense

masses at sunset, and moving on again as soon as the heat of the sun inspires them with fresh vigour.

In cold and rainy weather they remain pretty stationary, devouring everything within their reach; but when the weather is fine, and they again begin their march, nothing can stop them. In the year 1851, I chanced to be residing on the banks of the Alma, when intelligence was brought that an immense column of locusts was approaching to the opposite side of the river; and having heard that they were afraid of water, I was curious to know how they would act, as the water was at this place about ten yards wide, and the current pretty strong.

By the time I arrived at the water's edge a number had already passed over; the water was black with them; and the opposite bank, which was five or six feet high, was covered with a moving mass, very like bees as they hang from the hive before swarming. As those in the rear pressed forward, those in front sprang into the stream and swam across; although millions were carried away by the current and drowned, no diminution in their numbers was perceptible. In spite of the voraciousness of their appetite, they sometimes pick and choose as they go along; for

they passed through a field of millet without touching it; devoured the leaves of the tobacco plant in the next field; and, entering the garden, attacked the pepper plant and some of the vegetables, leaving others untouched.

On returning to the house, I had some occupation, before I dressed for dinner, in shaking off the multitudes of locusts which had taken refuge in the folds of my gown. Judge of my surprise next morning, to find the unfortunate garment which I had worn the day before, so full of large holes that it was impossible to put it on. The mystery, however, was soon solved; for out hopped one locust, then another, and another,—showing me, at once, who had been the perpetrators of this pitiless act.

As the young swarms do not all come out at the same time, there is a constant succession of them; and often when the farmer hopes he has escaped, and with thankful heart walks out into his fields, he finds the ravages of a second column have commenced. The rye and wheat sometimes remain untouched till the ear is formed, but yet green; and when it is attacked, the locusts begin crawling one after another up each stalk, and in a few hours nothing but stubble remains. It is sad, indeed, to witness these ravages—to see

the peasant standing helplessly by, whilst the corn that was to support himself and family for a whole year is thus devoured.

As soon as the locusts are grown to their full size, they cast their skin, and emerge with full-formed wings; after which process they are no longer so destructive as before. When flying, if the swarm be not very large, their appearance puts one in mind of a snow storm, when the large flakes are driven through the air by the wind; but they are sometimes in such clouds that they darken the sun.

During the month of August, the female deposits her eggs in the earth, about two inches below the surface; and these eggs, about forty in number, are contained in a hard case an inch long and about the thickness of a quill, which protects them most carefully both from the effects of cold and wet.

Dogs, and poultry of all kinds, are particularly fond of these creatures; and they are constantly followed by flocks of starlings, which consume immense quantities of them.

There is one kind of starling which comes from Asia, particularly renowned for this, and is never seen in the Crimea except on these occasions. Its plumage is a mixture of black and white, something like a magpie. There is a tradition that these birds follow the water of a sacred well near Mecca wherever it is carried. Accordingly, some years ago, when the country was covered with locusts, a deputation of Moolahs from Baghtché Sarai, was sent to Mecca to procure some of that invaluable water. A few days after their return, the black and white starlings made their appearance, and the following year not a locust was to be seen in the country. This deliverance was, of course, attributed by the Tartars to the effects of their pilgrimage to Mecca; and, in fact, I have never met with any one who could account, in a satisfactory way, for the sudden manner in which they disappeared.

Everything has been tried by the Government to avert this public calamity. A price was put upon the eggs, and immense quantities were collected and destroyed; as soon as the young swarms appeared, the Tartars were called out from all the villages; ditches were dug, and the locusts swept or driven into them, and buried there; straw was scattered on them, when collected together at night, which was set fire to, and they were burned along with it;—but all in vain.

When once on their march, nothing can stop

their course; on, on, they go, day after day, in a continued and endless stream. The hope of the husbandman vanishes before them; famine and desolation follow in their rear; the earth is covered with them; the water is polluted by their dead bodies; the very air is tainted; and man in his impotence is forced to bow the head, and humble himself beneath the scourge of the Almighty.

Nor are the orchard and forest trees without their enemies; for, besides the common caterpillars, which destroy the fruit, there is one which comes occasionally for two or three years in succession, and is most destructive to the trees. As soon as the leaves begin to open in spring, this caterpillar appears, and commences his work of destruction, devouring them as they grow, both on the trees and hedges; and I have seen them crawling amongst the grass in countless numbers, till whole districts were laid waste. The noise made by them in eating the leaves may be heard at some distance. The trees assume the appearance of winter, with this difference, that they are now covered over with the webs with which these caterpillars envelop themselves at the approach of night.

When they come in such numbers they are to

be found everywhere, and penetrate even into houses and cottages; and on one occasion, much to my surprise, I saw thousands of them crawling about the streets of Sevastopol, which, from its situation, one would suppose not much exposed to such an invasion.

These and many other calamities which afflict the Crimea, might in a great measure be averted, were the country more thickly peopled, and were measures taken in time: but the evil is allowed to gain such gigantic proportions before anything is done to oppose it, that when at last the inhabitants are roused to action it is too late, and all human efforts are ineffectual. If we compare the state of the country now with what it was thirty years ago, we find that the progress which has been made in every department of industry is immense; but much remains to be done. Many paths which would lead to commercial prosperity remain as yet unexplored. I may mention as examples, the cultivation of the cotton-plant and of madder, and the rearing of the silkworm,-all of which have perfectly succeeded on a small scale, but have never received that attention which they merit.

Besides the smallness of the population, and the consequent difficulty of procuring workmen, another great obstacle to improvement is the want of capital; few of the proprietors, with the exception of those on the south coast, having the means of commencing any undertaking which involves a considerable expenditure.

To the naturalist, and especially to the botanist, the Crimea presents a wide field of study, and is full of interest; and I regret that in these rapid sketches I cannot enter into details, which, besides being interesting in themselves, might serve to give a more complete idea of the country.

THE END.

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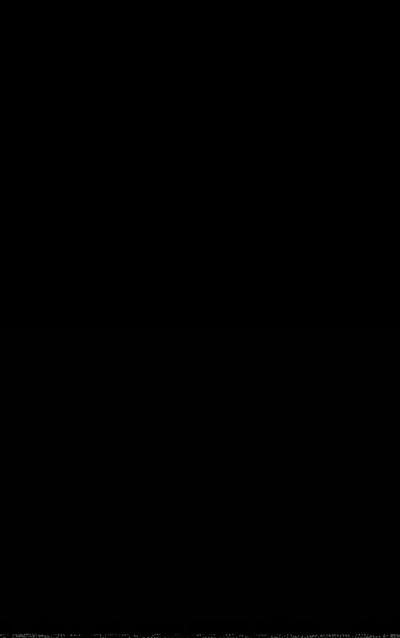
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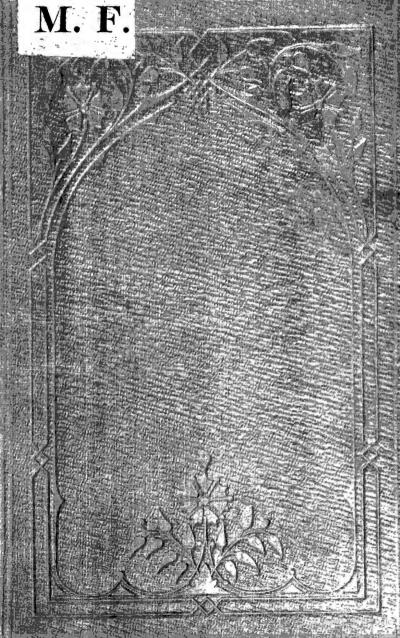
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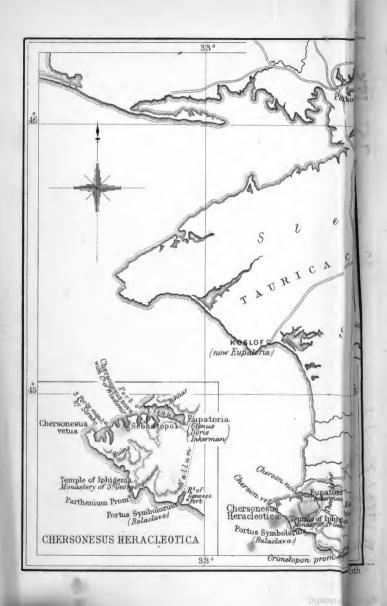












HISTORICAL SKETCH

OF

THE CRIMEA.

BY

ANTHONY GRANT, D.C.L.

ARCHDEACON OF ST. ALBANS, ETC.

LONDON:

BELL & DALDY, 186, FLEET STREET. 1855.

246. c. 65.



LONDON:
R. CLAY, PRINTER, BREAD STREET HILL.

PREFACE.

THE following pages were prepared in fulfilment of an engagement to deliver a Lecture at a Literary Institute in Hertfordshire. annals of the Crimea appeared to offer a most suitable topic for such an address, both from the interest at present attaching to the country, and from its connexion with those great revolutions in the fortunes of Europe which form the prominent landmarks of its history. But the subject soon grew beyond the limits of one, or even of two Lectures, so that the whole of what was written could not be delivered. From the interest which it seemed to excite. and from a wish expressed to that effect, I have been induced to publish this "Historical Sketch," as I had prepared it; and the purpose for which it was written will account for the

popular tone which pervades it, and for certain expressions and illustrations, which would not befit the graver style of historical composition. Still I would observe that labour has not been spared to render it a trustworthy and connected record of the actual history of the eventful land described; and if I abstain from loading the pages with notes and references, it is not because many volumes have not been consulted in the preparation of them, but because I would avoid the pretensions of an elaborate production.

The object of utility which I had in view, in undertaking the task, has caused me to add a Chronological Table, which may suggest special points in the history for further and more minute inquiry, to those who may be induced to examine them.

ROMFORD, May 1855.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE,

ILLUSTRATIVE OF

THE HISTORY OF THE CRIMEA.

B.C.

- 750.—THE Colonies of Panticapæum (Kertch), and Theodosia (Kaffa), founded by Milesians.
- 634.—The Scythians drive the Cimmerians out of Taurida (Crimea).
- 592.—Anacharsis, the Scythian philosopher, visits Athens.
- 508.—The expedition of Darius the Mede against the Seythians.
- About 500.—The Colony of Cherson (near Sebastopol) founded by emigrants from Heraclea in Bithynia.
- 480.—The kingdom of Bosporus settled under kings called the Archwanactidæ.
- 390.-Leucon, King of Bosporus, an ally of Athens.
- 380.—The Sauromatæ (Sarmatians) threaten Taurida.
- 120.—Mithridates, King of Pontus, begins to reign.
- 115.—He comes to the help of Taurida against the Tauro-Seythians.
 - Ctenus, or Eupatoria, (Inkermann,) built by Diophantes, his general.
 - Parysades, King of Bosporus, resigns his throne to Mithridates, who rules over Taurida.
 - 70.—Sarmatians migrate to Scandinavia, under Odin.
 - 63.—Death of Mithridates.
 - Taurida becomes subject to the Romans.
- 47.—Victory over Pharnaces by Julius Casar. Teni, vidi, vici.

A. D.

62.—The Alains invade Taurida.

250—268.—The Goths enter Taurida, scize Bosporus, and thence ravage Asia.

280.—Christianity spreads in the Crimea. Some Christians in Taurida suffer martyrdom.

292.—Sarmatians seize Panticapæum, and are defeated by the Chersonites.

320.—The Chersonites defeat the Goths on the Danube, at the summons of Constantine the Great.

376-450.-The Huns overrun Taurida; the Goths are driven to the mountains.

464.—The Huns fail on the death of Attila.

536—548.—Justinian strengthens Cherson, Kaffa, and Alushta against the Utrigures and Cutrigures of the Hun family.

679.—The Chazares subjugate Taurida, a large portion of which is called *Chazaria*.

695.—Cherson the prison of Justinian II.

840.—Chazaria, and the Greek towns, with Gothie, formed into one province by Theophilus; of which Cherson is the capital.

858.—Cyril sent as a Missionary to convert the Chazares, at their own request.

894—1050.—The Petschénégues enter and possess Taurida, driving out the Chazares.

988.—Vladimir, Grand Duke of Russia, takes Cherson, and is baptized there.

1050-1227.—The Comanes possess themselves of Taurida.

1070.—Rise of Sudak as a commercial town, the capital of Soldaya.

- The Genoese commence intercourse with Taurida.

1100.—Jealousy between Sudak, Kaffa, and Cherson. Cherson begins to decline. A. D.

- 1207-1227.-Genghis Khan's victories in the East.
- 1201.—Genoese settle at Kaffa, and the Venetians at Azoff.
- 1237.—Bathi, grandson of Genghis Khan, at the head of the Mogul Tartars, subjugates the tribe of Kiptschak, and overruns Taurida.
 - Krim is made the capital of the Moguls, and the Peninsula is named Crimea.
- 1237—1423.—The Crimea under the sovereignty of the Khans of Kiptschak.
- 1300—1400.—The Goths and other Christians cruelly persecuted by the Mahometan Tartars. The Goths are gradually extinguished.
- 1350.—Cherson abandoned. Doros (*Inkermann*) becomes the capital of a principality called Theodorie.
- 1352.—Victory of the Genoese over the Greeks and Venetians. (See Gibbon, Ch. lxiii.)
- 1360.—The Genoese at the height of their power. Kaffa grows in magnificence.
- 1381.—War of Chioggia. Genoa begins to decline. (See Hallam's Middle Ages, Ch. iii. Part 2.)
- 1363.—The Genoese seize Sudak.
- 1380.—Gothie ceded to them by the Tartars.
- 1390—1396.—Tamerlane ravages the Ukraine, and subdues the tribe of Kiptschak.
- 1395.—Tamerlane plunders Azoff, and attacks Kaffa.
- 1423.—Devlet Gueraï, the first of that dynasty, Khan of the Crimea.
- 1433.—The Genoese seize Balaclava.
- 1453.—Constantinople taken by Mahomet II.
- 1469.—Mengély Gueraï succeeds to the throne of the Crimea.
- 1475.—Kaffa taken by the Turks, and the Genoese power destroyed.

A. D.

1478.—The kingdom of the Crimea established by Mahomet II. The Khan a vassal of the Porte.

N.B. In this state the kingdom lasted until seized by Russia in 1783. During this period there were forty Khans on the throne.

About 1500.—Baktchi-serai made the capital of the Crimea.

1571.—Moscow destroyed by Devlet Gueraï, Khan.

1587—1608.—Gazi Gueraï (the tenth of the race), one of the best Khans, reigns. Moscow again besieged.

1671—1704.—Selim Gueraï (the twentieth), the greatest of the Khans, on the throne.

1683.-Siege of Vienna, raised by John Sobieski.

1688.—A Russian army attacks Perecop, and is repulsed.

1736.—The Crimea overrun by a Russian army under Marshal Munich. Baktchi-serai pillaged.

1737.—The Crimea again invaded by Russians under Marshal Lascy.

1771.—Two Russian armies devastate the Crimea under Dolgorouki.

1771—1774.—Contests between the Porte and Russia, respecting rival Khans.

1774.—Treaty of Kainardji.

1776.—Fresh contests and intrigues. Sahim Gueraï supported by the Russians.

1777.—Russian army slays 7,000 Turks at Balaclava.

Massacre of nobles at Karasu-bazaar.

1783.—Sahim Gueraï (the fortieth and last Khan), abdicates, and cedes the Crimea to Catharine II. of Russia.

AN HISTORICAL

SKETCH OF THE CRIMEA.

PROBABLY no instance can be found of such a sudden transition from obscurity to celebrity, as has befallen the Crimea within the period of a few months. Less than two years back, and no name could have been mentioned that would have excited so little concern; and now no spot on the globe engages the anxious thoughts of so large a portion, I may say, of mankind, as this small peninsula. And this interest is the growth, as it were, of a night; it has sprung, in a moment, into a terrible manhood. Nor is it a transitory, ephemeral fame that it has rushed into. It will endure. Balaclava, Inkermann, Sebastopol,—names, two of them unknown probably to all, and the other

but little known to any but politicians and geographers,—have obtained a world-wide and a world-long repute. Deeds have been done there which will be chronicled in the world's history, and form the theme for almost school-boy declamation in all ages.

And yet the obscurity from which it has emerged was not owing to its being destitute of historic associations and recollections of the deepest interest. On the contrary, the land is literally scarred with the foot-prints of bygone events. No country, I believe, could present a series of vicissitudes so varied, so continuous. All the great nations of historic times have left on its surface traces of their power. Not for its own sake, but for the sake of other interests, it has been compelled to be the arena or witness of vast conflicts and antagonisms, under which it has groaned and suffered. One of its towns was the capital of a considerable kingdom, and was at one time embellished with the richest treasures of ancient art; another acquired the title of the birth-place of the Russian Church. Two great nations, the offspring of the barbaric period, after perishing in other lands, here lingered as in their last asylum, and then expired. Its waters have been swept by the most renowned fleets that have ever commanded the sea. Its hills have been the refuge of the oppressed; its valleys the scenes of terrible slaughter; its plains the resting-place of every savage horde in its migration from east to west. And this changeful fate has followed it up to the present time without intermission, and now it is gathering to itself a fresh and more lasting celebrity.

But two questions at once present themselves upon this statement:—

How happened it that a country so small, and seemingly insignificant, should have been the scene, not casually, but by a certain necessity and fatality, of so many historical catastrophes?

And how happened it that, having witnessed and suffered so much, its name and history should have been so little known to the world?

For the answer to the first question we must refer to its geographical position. Observe the place of the Crimea in the map, and we are led to ask, Is it north, or south? Is it east, or west? not, of course, by the compass, but mapped according to the social life of man, and the great families of nations. It is border land. Conflicting climates, physical conditions, and tribes, have ever pressed upon it, on every side. Regard it north and south. It stands midway between the rigours and barbarism of the north and the warmth and civilization of the south. This is one key to its history. Here, in ancient days, the rude wandering Scythian from the steppe came into contact with the soft Asiatic and the lettered Greek; here too, in modern times, the Hun or Tartar disputed the ground with the adventurous Italian; for here the domain of the one ended, and that of the other began; and, curiously enough, as I shall presently point out, the separating line was distinctly marked on the face of the country, by that mountain barrier crossing the country at its south, separating the desolate steppe from the balmy luxuriant coast, and dividing the land, as it were, into two zones.

Regard it, again, east and west. It lies on the very borders of Europe and Asia; for, even from the days of Herodotus up to a very recent date, the boundary formed by the Cimmerian Bosporus, the Palus Mæotis, the Tanais, (now the Straits of Yenikale, the Sea of Azoff, the Don.) was the assumed line of demarcation between the two continents. Hence the Crimea was subject to the influences of the European and the Oriental, who met and mingled on its soil. Here, as at their separate outposts, the Western and the Eastern were brought face to face. The costly treasures borne in caravans from China and India found on the Euxine their natural outlet, and passed from the hands of Asiatic to Greek; a fact embodied, probably, by the imaginative genius of the Greeks in the fable of the Golden Fleece, and the Argonautic expedition to Colchis on the eastern coast of the Euxine sea.

Herein lay the causes that made it the point of concourse, and of conflicting passions and interests, to mankind. And if we inquire further, how it came to attain to so little eminence, and leave so scant a memorial behind it, the cause is to be found in this; that, after all, it was but a battle field; it had but little intrinsic excellence of its own; it was but the prey of contending nations, the spoil of the strong and the forfeiture of the weak. It never had a substantive and independent existence; had no indigenous inhabitants; was the fatherland of none. Each tribe or race settled there as it could, and remained as long as it could, and then made way for others. And even the colonies that were formed, or the semblance of a kingdom that latterly was established, leaned, for strength, upon external help; and, throughout its history, we shall see the inhabitants in their normal state of feebleness always appealing to some stronger neighbour for aid, against impending danger.

So that, though the scene of many and varied deeds, it no more acquired from them a greatness of its own, than does the sea, which is the highway of all but the home of none; over which many things, fraught with all the elements of shame or glory, pass, but none take

root; and whose fame, therefore, is as unstable as its waves.

And these very same conditions of its existence have impressed upon this land another characteristic, which will be illustrated in its annals. It is the great variety with which itself, its inhabitants, and its history are chequered. It is a land of contrasts and anomalies. There is hardly anything consistent and uniform in it. It is made up of discrepancies and incongruities; some feature, e.g. is admired as highly interesting, picturesque, striking, but it is as different from what lies next beside it, either in space or in time, as we can imagine. In its physical condition there is no harmony or uniformity, as I shall point out; in its history there is no continuous life. In the former it resembles rather a collection of heterogeneous plants, than a native woodland; in the latter, it suggests the idea of a heap of disconnected links, and not a continuous chain. The natives of opposite climes and habits have settled side by side in strange disharmony, the colonist or merchant decorating the coast with the refine-

ments of southern luxuries, while behind him the Scythian or wandering Tartar has maintained his nomad habits, pitching his tent and pasturing his herds of sheep or horses in the outstretched steppe, as if he were hundreds of miles from the reach of civilized life. It is just this diversity that strikes the traveller now. He meets with the sweepings of nations. He sees a motley group of inhabitants from all surrounding countries, turbaned, fur-capped, hatted, or veiled; in robe, jacket, sheepskin, or coat, walking the same street; sometimes a picturesque Tartar town, with its mixed Byzantine and Chinese architecture, deep circularheaded windows, grey historic walls, tapering and decorated minaret, or its feudal and castellated fort, side by side with some miserable Russian modernism of a whitewashed town; all proclaiming the incongruous fate and varied fortunes that cling, like a nemesis, to this interesting but unfortunate peninsula.

But it is time to turn to the facts that will illustrate these reflections.

The Crimea, as it is now called,—the Tauric Chersonese, or Taurida, as it was called in ancient days,-in shape resembling an irregular lozenge, is projected into the Euxine or Black Sea, as the Morea is into the Mediterranean. From the narrow neck of land on the north (the isthmus of Perecop, by which it is attached to the mainland), to Sebastopol on the south, is 130 miles, and its breadth to Kertch about 140. The whole area contains about 10,000 square miles, which makes it larger than the Morea, which has only 9,000, and considerably larger than the whole of the principality of North and South Wales, which contains under 7,500. The population of the Crimea is very scanty, amounting to about 200,000, one-half of whom are Tartars, the other half Jews, Armenians, Greeks, and Russians. This number gives 20 to each square mile; a small proportion, when we consider that the average population of Great Britain is 204 to the square mile, and of the whole of Europe, 63.

As I have already remarked, the physical face of the country is divided into two very

distinct, though unequal, districts; the first occupying about nine-tenths of the surface on the north, and consisting of an uncultivated steppe or prairie-land; the latter consisting of a strongly-marked mountainous belt on the south, rising at the south-west corner at Balaclava, and stretching along the coast, in a north-east direction, for about 100 miles, to Kaffa, and reaching inland with an average breadth of from 12 to 20 miles. Now, physical geography will teach us that the natural features and conditions of a country will very largely determine, or at least modify, the character and fortunes of its inhabitants; and if so, it could hardly happen that it should be otherwise in this case.

I have prepared you to expect that we shall find it thus to be. In truth, this southern range of mountains has stood as a barrier between the civilized and uncivilized life of the South and North of Europe; as if the two streams had here met and thrown up a rocky bar between them, or as if their surging waters, breaking upon each other in collision, had been suddenly indurated and petrified into a mountainous barricade.

The steppe, which occupies all the northern portion, is a vast uncultivated plain, about 120 feet above the level of the sea, covered with luxuriant, though coarse, herbage, slightly undulating, but not broken into hills, and destitute of trees. This Crimean steppe forms only a part of that continuous range of similar plain which reaches from Hungary, along the north of the Caspian Sea, through Independent Tartary, Thibet, and Mongolia, even to China, a distance of some 5,000 miles. "Countless herds of cattle roam over these noble pasture-grounds, on which a calf born at the foot of the great Chinese wall might eat his way along, till he arrived, a well-fattened ox, on the banks of the Dniester, prepared to figure with advantage in the Odessa market." 1

Such a country is clearly suited only for a nomad or pastoral race, since it is unfitted for agriculture, and has but few attractions to attach the tenants of it to a particular spot. Hence

¹ Kohl, p. 466.

the wandering, unsettled habits of those vast hordes of Mongol, Calmuck, and Crim Tartars. endless tribes, that have successively inundated the south and west of Asia and Europe; not bringing with them the peaceful habits with which we are apt to associate the pastoral life, but war in its fiercest and most tumultuous aspect. Of these I shall have to say more presently. Such pastoral habits, at least, still cling to the inhabitants scattered over the Crimean steppe. No large town marks its surface, but only scattered villages of sunburnt brick. The men are given, as of yore, to the breeding of cattle and horses; the women are occupied in making cloth. Still the Tartar of the north retains his Mongolian caste of countenance,high cheek-bones, wide eyes, and flat nose. The horse is his favourite animal, from which he is scarcely ever separate, and which he sits as if he formed a part of the animal. Thus he gallops across the steppe, with his fur cap, striped jacket, loose trowsers, and sashed waist. from which the bright ponderous handle of his dagger protrudes, with the same free air as

when he crossed with the Golden Horde from his native Mongolia.

But all this is changed immediately you approach the mountainous range, on the border of which you first meet the larger towns of Karasu-bazaar, Simpheropol, and Baktchi-serai. There the symptoms of civilized life, the exercise of trades, the cultivation of tobacco, flax, and garden produce appear, and the very features of the Tartar begin to disappear. The inhabitants are of a mixed race. But cross the mountains, and although one or two Tartar villages appear, still, with the changed climate and produce of the soil, the character of the Tartar is gone. He lives, indeed, in his hut, cut into the side of the ravine or hill, but he is out of his element. His blood is mixed with that of the Genoese or the Greek; he has lost his native freedom, and gained only an Italian cunning. In truth, immigrants from the south are the true occupants of this district. Here they have settled, and carried on their commercial enterprises, and, in the ravines, have cultivated the plants and fruits of the Mediterranean.

Here, from age to age, they have erected their barrier against their northern barbarian neighbours. This is the true historical district, in which, for the most part, are gathered the relics and the records of past Greek or Italian dominion.

Therefore, after this necessary sketch, I turn now to the history of this unhappy and distracted land; and perhaps a clearer idea of the course I propose to pursue may be obtained, if I divide my subject into separate periods, introducing into each those salient historical features that distinguish it. These periods will be—

- I. The Fabulous period.
- II. The Greek and Roman period.
- III. The Barbaric period.
- IV. The Genoese period.
 - V. The period of the Khans of Little Tartary.

I.

THE FABULOUS PERIOD.

The earliest reliable authority speaks of the Taurida as having been originally inhabited by two races, the Tauri and the Cimmerians; the Tauri occupying the west and north, the Cimmerians the east. It is doubted which were the first occupants of the soil, and, indeed, to what particular families of the human race the latter of these tribes is to be apportioned. The Tauri were of Scythian extraction; but with regard to the Cimmerians, some ethnologists have been anxious to identify them with the Celtic race of the Kymri, and hence to claim them as the lineal ancestors of the Welsh. The most recent researches, however, into the subject discredit such a statement.

The name of Cimmerian is probably much more familiar to us than that of the contiguous Tauri, and the associations connected with it

¹ Latham. "Man and his Migrations."

represent the ideas of horror and gloom with which the first Greeks invested those northern shores, which they deemed to touch on the regions of perpetual darkness and the gloomy realms of Erebus. Those ideas were caught from the great father of Epic poetry,

"The blind old man from Chios' rocky isle,"

who incorporated in his immortal poems all the geography known in his day, and whose description of this region is thus feebly translated by Pope:—

"There, in a lonely land and gloomy cells,
The dusky nation of Cimmeria dwells;
The sun ne'er views the uncomfortable seats
When radiant he advances or retreats.
Unhappy race! whom endless night invades,
Clouds the dull air, and wraps them round in shades."
Odyss. xi. 14.

Whatever difficulty may attend the geography of Homer, there can be but little doubt that the Crimea was before his mental eye when he described Cimmeria, the neighbouring cannibals, and the one-eyed monsters, the tradition of whose existence in Scythia was

strong, 500 years later, and finds its place in the narrative of the father of Greek history. From the Phænician merchants, as they fled from these inhospitable coasts at the approach of winter, he heard of the tempests that swept over the sea, the impenetrable fogs, and frequent shipwrecks, of the eight months' gloom of winter, and of hordes inaccessible to pity, who were a terror to the mariner, and whose character was shortly and not pleasantly summed up by the Greek geographer,1 some 1000 years later, as being "murderers of strangers, cannibals, and using skulls for their drinking cups." From them too he heard of that land-locked bay, which travellers identify with the little port of Balaclava, poetically called by the ancients, Boreæ antrum, "the cavern of Boreas," and which he thus depicted:-

"Within a long recess a bay there lies,
Edged round with cliffs, high pointing to the skies;
The jutting shores that dwell on either side
Contract its mouth, and break the rushing tide,

¹ Strabo.

Our eager sailors seize the fair retreat,

And bound within the port their crowded fleet:

For here retired the sinking billows sleep,

And smiling calmness silvers o'er the deep."

Odyss. i. 101—108.

And yet the bright fancy of the Greeks made this dismal coast the scene of one of the most beautiful of its many tales. The rugged cliff between Sebastopol and Balaclava is the scene of that touching tale of the friendship of Pylades and Orestes, which forms the subject of one of Euripides' tragedies, "The Iphigenia in Tauris," and has been reproduced in almost every civilized tongue.

Whatever may have been the actual truth or fiction involved in the tale, there was at least signified by it, as Gibbon remarks, the humanizing influence of Greek intercourse on the Scythian barbarians of the Crimea. While the Athenians, in their beautiful and glorious city, melted at the tale of their poet, and while the Chersonites at a later period erected a temple, called the Oresteum, on the cliff which was the supposed site of Diana's temple, the moral of the tale was not lost for centuries among the

Scythians, but the inviolability of friendship was ever observed by them with religious fidelity. The poet Ovid heard the story from the lips of a Sarmatian; and the Oresteum with its frescoes, representing the affecting contest of the two friends, was standing in the days of Lucian. It was near that spot now occupied by the monastery of St. George, on the promontory of the same name, between the English and the French camps; and many a traveller has visited, with almost the reverence of devotion, that spot whose tradition has consecrated one of the best sympathies of the human heart, and exercised so great an influence on the civilized life of nations.

II.

THE GREEK AND ROMAN PERIOD.

But time wore on: the adventurous spirit of the Greeks soon tested the fabled horrors of these blood-stained shores; and with the record of their deeds we pass from the region of

¹ Lucian lived A. p. 90-180.

legend to that of history. Very early the commercial spirit of the Greek colonists—like that of our own countrymen—gained a footing on those dreaded coasts. Emigrants from Miletus, an Ionian colony on the Asian coast, first founded (B.C. 750) a settlement on the eastern part of the peninsula, and fixed the site of two flourishing towns, Panticapæum, (or Kertch,) and Theodosia, (or Kaffa,) on that projecting neck of land which afterwards constituted the kingdom of Bosporus.

The intercourse between the Crimea and the South from this time rapidly increased.

That wonderful century of illumination, (the 6th B.C.) which saw Thales, the father of Grecian philosophy, flourish at Miletus, Solon at Athens, Confucius in China, saw also Anacharsis the Scythian arise in Taurida, to light the lamp of civilization for his nation. The fact that he was born of a Greek mother proves the intercourse that existed between the two countries. His abode at Athens (B.C. 592), and friendship with Solon; his assassination, on his return home, for his partiality to the sacred

mysteries of Greece, and the popular reverence paid to his memory, could not fail to keep alive a sympathy with Greece. At a later period, the invasion of Darius the Mede (B.C. 508) accustomed the minds of his subjects to the Scythian coasts and Scythian manners. Immediately after this event, another band of emigrants started from Heraclea in Bithynia, and founded the next most famous colony in the Crimea, on that fateful peninsula at the western extremity, on which the allied armies are now encamped, and which is connected with the mainland by the valley of the Tchernaya, which runs from Inkermann to Balaclava.

No piece of land in the world has been so frequently and so desperately disputed as this strip of barren rock, by so many and such varied combatants.

Here was founded the Greek town of Cherson, on the easternmost point, now called Cape Chersonese,—while the whole neck of land, from the double circumstance of its form and of its occupants, was called the Heracleotic Chersonese.

Another indication of advancing change, and of dawning civilization, presents itself in the alteration made about this time in the name of that sea which washes the Crimea.

Hitherto it had been known to the Greek mariner by the name of the Pontus Axenus, or the Inhospitable Sea. Now it assumes a fresh aspect and title, and is called Pontus Euxinus, or Hospitable Sea.

Why this change? It is curious to reflect. Did it arise from the polished sensibility or superstitious timidity of the Greeks, which was wont to repress all words of ill-omen; as, when speaking of those dread beings the Furies, they always addressed them as the "Eumenides," (the benevolent,) or the "Semnai," (the venerable) goddesses, as if by these bland euphemisms they bespoke their good favour, and propitiated their dreaded vengeance? Or had it a less spiritual origin? Was it that when Greek enterprise had planted its colonies along the shores, towards which it naturally desired to attract the richly laden vessels that swept the Ægean Sea, it was feared lest a title so ill-

omened, suggestive of shipwreck and cannibalism, should frighten away the sensitive spirit of commerce; and that thus commercial prudence stamped the highway that led to these harbours with a name of more hopeful import? If so, it will find a parallel in the feeling which transformed the Cape of Storms into the Cape of Good Hope; or,—to come nearer home, even to our own metropolis,—in the laudable self-respect which led the prospering inhabitants of a neighbourhood to change the uncouth name of Grub Street into Milton Street, and the uncleanly title of Foul Lane into the royal designation of York Street.

However this may be, the poet Ovid, when banished to its bleak shores, indulged his unmanly despondency in petulantly complaining of the name of the Euxine, as if it was a piece of geographical imposture, and no doubt would have been gratified by the modern veracity which restored to the sea its rightful title of the Black Sea, and thus did due honour to the dark storms and Cimmerian mists that infest it.

With the year 480 B.C. history opens upon us, and shows us the kingdom of Bosporus under a settled dynasty of kings, called the Archæanactidæ, and the small republic of Cherson flourishing in trade; but the two settlements looked on one another with a jealous eye, and were watched with some greedy feelings by their barbarous neighbours.

The kingdom of Bosporus stretched along that fertile line of coast already pointed out, from Kertch to Kaffa, a distance of about seventy miles. It was in close amity with Athens, the mistress of the sea, and indeed was the granary of that nation, sending yearly into the harbours of Attica 410,000 medimni, or about 60,000 quarters of wheat from its fertile plains. The country was well known to the Athenian merchants; and its localities are frequently referred to in the pleadings in the Athenian courts of law. The grandmother of Demosthenes was a native of the country, of Scythian extraction, as the great orator's jealous rival Æschines did not fail to remind him. Leucon, one of its kings, was in extreme favour with the republic,

on account of his having granted free trade to the Athenians; and Demosthenes adds that this king and his sons were admitted to the freedom of the city. One of the Bosporians being elected to a high civic office, and having to make a speech, to which he did not feel himself equal, wrote to his son at Athens to get the needful done for him in that eloquent city. The son applies to the great orator Isocrates, who complies with the request. And other services of friendly aid were mutually rendered by the two states.

But both the small kingdom of Bosporus and the still smaller republic of Cherson were too feeble and too prosperous to enjoy repose. And it was on these points of the Crimea that the aggressive violence of the barbarous tribes, which have never ceased to harass and prey upon the colonies of the southern coast, began to make itself felt.

From the first ages, the extensive plains lying to the north of the Crimea, and stretching eastward throughout the breadth of Asia, were the abode of countless hordes, which were known to the ancients by the common name of Scythians. These tribes inhabited the vast steppe of which Mount Altai forms the centre, and which may be reckoned the birth-place of the populations which successively burst down on the regions of the south.

It was not till the second or third century of the Christian era that the migration of nations occurred by which the West was overrun; and therefore it will not be desirable to speak of the tribes by which it was effected until I arrive at that period. Still, from the earliest ages, this rolling restless tide of human beings was in motion, and from time to time sending down its superabundant population, to overflow the sunny valleys of Europe. Even before the period I am speaking of, two, if not three invasions of these roving Scythians had taken place; in one of which they had expelled the Cimmerians from the Crimea and followed them in their flight into Asia (B.C. 634); and while the latter took possession of Sardis, the former poured downwards as far as Judæa and Ascalon, which fell a prey to their fury.

The predatory and aggressive tendencies of these unpleasant neighbours were felt by the small communities of Greek colonists in the Crimea. The charms of civilized life attracted these fierce-eyed warriors. At this period (B.C. 300-200), the Scythians who dwelt in the northern steppe of the peninsula had forced themselves down on the Tauri of the south, and formed a mixed race of Tauro-Scythians in the mountainous ridge along the coast. These constantly attacked and spoiled the rising colony of the Heracleotes in Cherson, who maintained themselves by commerce with their parent state and other provinces on the south of the Euxine. The same race cast an envious eye on the maritime prosperity of Theodosia; and, under their King Scylurus, after having seized this town, they threatened the kingdom of Bosporus on the east. On the other side of the narrow Cimmerian Strait there lay another formidable foe. There dwelt the tribe of Sauromatæ, or Sarmatians (the lizard-eyed, so called from the sinister and fierce expression of their eye), whose wandering, plundering habits, shaggy

beards, uncombed locks, and furs, with which they were covered from head to foot, inspired the civilized Greek colonists with dread.

So great was the power gained by this barbarous tribe, that they even disposed of the throne of Bosporus at a period of intestine trouble (B.C. 380); and these increasing aggressions brought a great actor on the scene, the most distinguished man who ever figured on these shores.

That actor was Mithridates, king of Pontus, "a king," says Cicero, "the greatest, next to Alexander the Great,"—"a man," says another writer,¹ "of whom it is equally difficult either to speak or to be silent. In war most vigorous; in valour peerless; superior to everything, sometimes in fortune, always in spirit; in counsel, a general; in action, a soldier; a very Hannibal in his hatred to Rome." For sixty years he governed Pontus, and for thirty waged war with the mistress of the world, and measured his strength with three of her greatest generals, Lucullus, Sylla, and Pompey. He

¹ Vell. Paterculus, lib. iii. c. 18.

subdued twenty-four provinces, spoke twentytwo languages, excelled in all bodily exercises, riding, wrestling, and racing, and, like that grotesque prince, Olaf Trygwæson of Sweden, the Christian Samson, delighted in challenging all comers to a trial of personal strength and prowess. He was fond of learning, wrote several treatises on medicine, and was the discoverer of that antidote against poison still known by the name of Mithridate. Of inexhaustible resources, he was disconcerted by no defeats, and was only inspired by them with fresh courage and new expedients. Boundless in ambition and avarice, he was a monster of cruelty. He poisoned a successful antagonist in a chariot race, murdered his mother, sister, and wives, and two sons, whom he had made kings of Cappadocia and Colchis; and, strange to say, a list of these several atrocities was found carefully registered by him in his treasure-house. So great was his wealth, that when Pompey took the garrison of Apsis (B.C. 66), where his treasures were concealed, he was able to distribute a sum equal to two or three millions of

our money to his soldiers, made himself the richest citizen of Rome, and deposited three millions more in the public treasury.

Such was the man who was brought into contact with the feeble king of Bosporus; with what result we can easily guess.

Amongst the magnificent dreams of conquest encouraged by Mithridates, the chief was, like a second Hannibal, to invade Rome from the north. Early in his career he proposed to turn the Euxine Sea on the east, subdue the barbarous tribes, traverse what was till recently called Little Tartary, Moldavia, Wallachia, Transylvania, Hungary, Styria, Carinthia, the Tyrol, Lombardy, and so fall on Rome, torn as it was by domestic factions. A magnificent and daring conception,-one which presented itself afterwards to a spirit no less hardy, but more controlled than his, that of Julius Cæsar; but it was frustrated by his death. Mithridates had even entered upon the expedition, and had won over several of the Scythian tribes, especially the Sarmatians, when, by a conjuncture of good fortune, entreaties were sent to him

from the small republic of Cherson and from Bosporus, for protection against the Tauro-Seythians. Too glad to accept such a protectorate, the first step to usurpation and sovereignty, he forthwith equipped two armies (B.C. 115), under his generals Diophantes and Neoptolemus, to rid the Crimea of these troublers. Diophantes attacked the Scythians near Palakion (now called Baktchi-serai), and easily defeated 50,000 ill-armed savages with 60,000 trained troops of Asia. He then established a strong fort where Inkermann now stands, the ruins of which still remain, and which he called Ctenos or Eupatoria, in honour of Mithridates, who was surnamed Eupator. Thence he ran a fortified wall along the valley of the Tchernaya to Balaclava, the site then, as it has been frequently since, of desperate and valiant encounters. Neoptolemus met the Scythian fleet coming out of Theodosia, destroyed it, and, at the same time, defeated the land forces on the ice at the Straits of Bosporus or Kertch.

The result of a strong will and towering ambition, brought into contact with a feeble

The same of the sa

mind, soon showed itself. Parysades, the king of Bosporus, abdicated (B.C. 81); Mithridates seized the throne, and became master of the Crimea. He made Panticapæum (Kertch) his capital, where he established his son as viceroy; and for a brief period that small town had a place and name amongst the great thrones of earth.

These things were not unobserved by the great mistress of the world. The Roman eagles soon flew to the rescue. An account of this enterprise was demanded, and haughtily refused by Mithridates, and hence arose the thirty years' war so famous in the most famous period of Rome's history. When Mithridates recrossed the Euxine to meet the Roman generals in Asia, he took the precaution of transplanting a colony of the Sarmatian tribes most favourable to him, to serve as a barrier against the restless Tauro-Scythians, and as a guard upon the fickle Bosporians.

His defeat by Lucullus soon followed (B. C. 71), on which occasion, escaping barely with his life, he sent a hasty summons to the Sar-

matians to come to his aid. And at this point of the Crimean history occurs one of those events, which can scarcely happen except in the youth of nations, but which are full of moral grandeur; the tradition of which, while it is accepted by ordinary historians, is not wholly discredited by the great historian of Rome's decline and fall, who was too much disposed to sneer at credulity to be himself its victim, and too distrustful of the virtues of human nature to find pleasure in any of its sentiment.

It is said that the Sarmatians, experiencing the tyranny of Mithridates and apprehending that of Rome, formed (B. C. 70), under Odin their chief, the hardy and spirited resolution of at once quitting a land so dangerous to their independence, and seeking a home of freedom in the regions of the North. Believing themselves under the Divine guidance, they traversed the breadth of Europe, from the Euxine to the Baltic, crossing mountains and rivers, until in the fastnesses of Scandinavia they fixed their abode; and, cherishing in their war-songs the recollection of their hardships and the passoin

for revenge, they thence issued, three centuries later, under the name of Goths, to chastise the proud mistress of the world.

But to return to Mithridates.

Flying from the victorious Pompey, who had seized his stronghold in Pontus, he retired to his capital in Bosporus. With incredible energy, at seventy-two years of age, he made a desperate effort to rouse his army to repair his fortunes. They refuse. Pharnaces, his favourite son, heads the mutiny, compels his father to shut himself up in Panticapæum, and has himself crowned by the soldiery, under the very walls and within sight of the palace. The old man, wrung by the treachery of his son, and dreading to be led a captive through the streets of Rome at the chariot-wheels of Pompey, soon took his resolution. After sending a few bitter and reproachful words to his son, he gathered his wives and daughters in a chamber of the palace, and there shared with them the deadly cup. But the draught had no power over him (they say, owing to his frequent use of antidotes to poison); he then pierced himself in many

places; still without effect; till at last, he bade a Gaulish soldier of his guard to do the work of death upon him.

The fate of the Crimea was changed with his death, and I hasten to conclude the Roman period of its history.

It was declared by Pompey to be under the suzerainty of Rome, and to form part of the empire.

As for Cherson, that republic, not meddling in Asiatic politics, and, therefore, not exciting the jealousy of Rome,—relieved too from the oppression it had experienced from the kings of Pontus (the mother country),—more securely, also, protected than before from the incursions of barbarians, grew in prosperity. To this latter cause, perhaps, it was owing that, about this time, the site of its chief town was removed from the small promontory on the extreme southwest further inwards, towards what is now the harbour of Sebastopol, and occupied the ground just above the quarantine harbour. The ruins of the old town were visible to the geographer Strabo shortly before the Christian era. In

conformity with its everchanging destiny, the village and fort of Eupatoria took the name of Pompeiopolis, from the name of the conqueror; only, however, to change it again and again, under the Goths and under the Tartars. During the reign of the first Roman emperors it attracted but little notice; but in proof of the vigour and spirit which it fostered, two events deserve to be noticed.

In the reign of Diocletian (A.D. 292), the old enemies of the Crimea and of Bosporus, the Sarmatians, crossed the Cimmerian Strait, and seized Panticapæum. Constantius, the father of Constantine, orders the Chersonites to repel the barbarians beyond the limits of the empire. They immediately issue forth, and, in a battle near Kaffa, render this signal service to their imperial mistress.

Again, in the reign of Constantine the Great (circ. 320), the terrible Goths cross the Danube, and threaten the Roman provinces; and once more, under Dionysius the Protevon, or President of the state, a considerable army is raised,

¹ From the Greek πρωτεύων.

which, issuing from the Crimea, intrepidly falls on the barbarians, and the boundaries of the empire are relieved. For this service, Constantine honours the republic with rare distinctions. He gives them a golden statue of himself to decorate their town. He confers rich presents on the chief magistrate and senators. The state is perpetually exempted from all dues and imposts in the Black Sea; and a regular supply of corn, wine, oil, iron, and other articles requisite for peace or war, are promised. And here, for the present, we leave the republic.

As for Bosporus, its fate was far different. The wretched parricide, Pharnaces, was rewarded for his crime with the throne of that kingdom. After a time, when the Roman legions had retired from Asia, seized with the presumptuous hope of recovering his father's possessions in Pontus and Bithynia, he invades those provinces of Rome. But a spirit and a genius greater than any that had yet dug the iron heel of Rome into the neck of Asia, was on the alert. Julius Cæsar, with the sixth legion, had entered Syria from Egypt. The

rumour of this insane attempt reached him, and with incredible celerity he hurried across Asia, (B.C. 47), literally sprang upon Pharnaces and his army near Ziela, and in four hours drove him flying back to Bosporus. It was on this occasion that, in a letter to the senate, he announced this fruit of his energy, genius, and power, in that message of telegraphic brevity, Veni, vidi, vici. As for Pharnaces, on reaching Bosporus, he found an aspirant to the throne ready to contest it with him, and was slain in battle.

Thenceforth the kingdom rapidly declined. It soon became a prey to the barbarous tribes whose occupation of the Crimea will be described hereafter. The race of inhabitants degenerated. The Sarmatians seized the throne and ruled under the name of Sauromatæ. At the same period (A.D. 62), the western portion of the territory fell into the hands, first of the tribe of Alains, then of the Goths. Even the little republic of Cherson defeated the Bosporians in more than one battle; till, in A.D. 376, the

¹ Sueton, Cæs, Vit. c. 35.

invasion of a far more terrible enemy, the Huns, inflicted a final blow on this ill-fated kingdom. It shared from that time the same lot as other territories overrun by barbarians: it never revived: and the very name of the kingdom of Bosporus disappears from history. Theodosia, indeed, its second chief town, rose, in after ages, into great importance by the commercial energy of the Genoese. But Panticapæum sunk hopelessly. During the 1400 years that elapsed between its fall as a capital and its cession to Russia in 1771, it was occupied by chance settlers from the various races that happened successively to be the strongest, the Huns, the Chazares, or Circassians, the Venetians, or Greeks, who carried on their trade as slave-dealers, or as fishermen, or exporters of salt. Russia has endeavoured to renew the decayed prosperity of the town, but it has been at the sacrifice of localities more favourable to the commerce of the Black Sea, and in neglect of that law which seems to forbid

¹ Under the Circassians it took its modern name of Kertch, which is only a corruption of the Tartar form of the word Circassia.

that either cities or nations, when once fallen, should ever recover their former glory.

At the beginning of the present century, "about a hundred houses existed, inhabited by Greeks." 1 It now contains about 10,000 inhabitants, in a modernized town on the edge of the plain from which rise the many mounds which formed the tombs of its early lords, and are the only monuments of its former greatness. Beyond it, westward, lies a tract of utter desolation. Yet that tract once waved with golden harvests, and poured its rich produce into the Athenian harbours; and nothing but the honest toil and industry of man are needed to make them flourish so again; for to some wheat cultivated here was awarded the prize at our Great Exhibition. But agriculture is abhorrent to the nature of the vagrant Tartar; and the Russian Sclave brings with him scarcely greater civilization. These ancient mounds, though pillaged again and again for their supposed treasures, form the great attraction to the traveller. Sometimes simply of earth, sometimes



cased with unhewn blocks of cyclopean work, testifying to their remote antiquity, they formed either the sepulchre or the treasure-house of the great. One, called Mithridates' Hill, is the supposed spot whence that great monarch was wont to inspect his armies and his fleets. From others, antiquarian spoils, vases, chains, armlets, have been taken to decorate the Hermitage at St. Petersburg. One, prominent above the rest, bears the name of the "Hill of Gold," from a tradition of the vast treasures that were thence extracted, and of its having been the burialplace of Mithridates. So affecting are the associations of departed greatness, especially when its records are in the chambers of the dead, that when the rugged Russian general Suvarroff, "albeit unused to the melting mood," was led to this spot, he fell on his knees and wept.

It is with such feelings that we may take our leave of this interesting place, and proceed to contemplate a similar fate more or less realized in other portions of the Crimea during its subsequent eventful revolutions.

Ш.

THE BARBARIC PERIOD.

That which I have named the Barbaric period was felt to be such not merely by the small country whose fortunes I am tracing, but by the whole of the then known world. It may be said to have lasted about 1,100 years, from the second to the thirteenth centuries; and during that period Europe, thitherto so civilized, became wholly disorganized and broken up into its primal elements.

I have already referred to the extensive plain, intersected occasionally by mountain ridges, rivers, and inland seas, which stretches from the Don to the Japan Sea, as the great storehouse of humankind. In times of ignorance this whole mass of barbarism was denominated Scythian, and the descents of some of its lesser tribes into the Crimea have been mentioned.

But it was not from this quarter that the first irruption of strange races was felt in the South of Europe and in the Taurida. Those who first attract attention are the Goths. History first finds them in the countries either washed or encompassed by the Baltic, in Sweden, Norway, and Prussia. Although in their disastrous devastations they resembled the Scythian hordes, it still appears that, from the influence either of climate, traditionary customs, or religion, they differed widely from these latter in their habits as well as their forms. The Goths were of large stature, lived in huts or fixed dwelling-places, were habited in a closefitting dress, were armed with a short sword and buckler, abhorred polygamy, and made their military expeditions on foot. They were not averse even to maritime pursuits. Yet in one point the German coincided with the Scythian, viz. in his dislike, perhaps contempt, of agricultural pursuits. Tracing their origin up to Odin, whom their Sagas celebrated as a demigod, and history has named "the Mahomet of the North," they received from him a fierce and martial religion; and in their savage inroad on the South they were animated as much by the

¹ Gibbon.

promise of sharing the feast of heroes in the Hall of Odin, as by the prospect of plunder in the conquered cities of their enemies.

The date of their earliest inroad with which I have to do, lies in the first half of the third century. About this time (A.D. 215) they descended the Borysthenes, now the Dnieper, and, entering by Perecop, overran the Crimea. The feeble tribe of the Alains yielded before them. Directing their course eastward, they seize the territory of Bosporus, and the coast of the Cimmerian Strait. At Theodosia they find the rude fleet of the Bosporians, flatbottomed boats, covered with a slanting roof, and calculated only for coast navigation; yet with these they conceive the hardy enterprise of ravaging the opposite shores of Asia. three successive expeditions, they assault the richest cities of Pontus and Bithynia, lade themselves with the spoils of Trebizond, then pass the Hellespont, and plunder the Asiatic towns, from whence they advance to Athens, spreading terror and desolation. Under their rude violence (A.D. 262) perished the sumptuous

temple of Diana, which was celebrated as one of the seven wonders of the world, and had kindled the enthusiasm of the opponents of St. Paul. It is said to have been destroyed seven times, and each time to have risen again with greater splendour than before :- kings had vied with each other in contributing to its embellishment, and its 127 columns were the gifts of as many monarchs. Eight of its pillars of green jasper still support the cupola of the Aya Sofia at Constantinople. We are sometimes tempted to mourn at the thought of the overthrow of such gorgeous monuments of wealth and of art by those brute hordes; but surely a Providence was guiding them; and in the ruin of this stronghold of paganism we see a token that the destined hour was come of that old superstition, whose knell was struck by its downfall.

To return to the Crimea. At this period the republic of Cherson was enjoying unusual prosperity; its wall protected it from the barbarians, and it was strong enough to defy the threats of the neighbouring mixed race of Greeks and Sarmatians in Bosporus. The Goths appear to have settled in the mountains, reaping the fruits of these southern raids.

But a century later a new and a more formidable foe arrived. The terrible Huns (A.D. 376) from the East, of purely Scythian blood, of uncouth form and strange habits, were hastening westward across the steppe, like bloodhounds on the scent, or, like birds of prey flocking to the dead carcase of Roman grandeur; and the Crimea lay in their route.

The terror inspired by these fresh hordes far surpassed what had been felt before at the Goths. It is enough to say that the Goths themselves trembled at them. Even to them they were utterly strange and monstrous. They were purely nomad or pastoral, dwelling in tents, wandering like flights of locusts whereever choice or hope allured them, clad in loose fur or sheepskin, and living on horseback. In appearance they were singularly hideous, with long head, tanned skin, narrow small eyes, flat nose, no beard, huge chest and shoulders, and dwarfed form; they were compared to

uncouth animals walking awkwardly on their hind legs, and were regarded as some monstrous birth or portent of nature. They were warriors of the reddest hue, whose only object of worship was a sword fixed, blade upwards, in the ground, the symbol of the God of War, which was bathed periodically with the blood of human and other victims. Their daily habits corresponded with all this savagery. Their attachment to the horse was, as it still is of the Tartar tribes, their passion. The horse was their companion, defender, shelter, food, and victim. Their drink was mares' milk, and had been from the days of Homer.1 Their food was horse-flesh; their tents were made of horse-skin. The horse's tail was the trophy of victory, the standard of war, and the badge of authority. By his many or few tails the Pasha still calculates his rank: and they hang suspended from the canopy of the Sultan's throne, as the symbol of royalty.

A swarm of these uncouth animals was enough to disturb the refined ease of the luxurious Romans. They advanced in two

^{1 &#}x27;Ιππημολγών γλακτοφάγων. Il. xiii. 5.

divisions—the White Huns stopped beyond the Caspian Sea; the second troop passed onwards to the Volga and Don, whence a portion of them (for they numbered some hundreds of thousands) descended into the Crimea. Their invasion, which lasted for seventy or eighty years, was directed latterly by the most terrible of all the barbarians, Attila, "the Scourge of God."

I pass by the desolations caused by this monarch, whose ambition was to make himself terrible. Yet with many of the passions that deform human nature, he was gifted with some brilliant qualities. Implacable towards his enemies, and insatiable of plunder, he was yet just and kind to his subjects, and lived with no superfluous pomp or luxury. He never oppressed those who submitted to him, and consequently the Crimea felt the benefit of his more tolerant rule.

The Goths, however, had to yield before this storm, and retired to some of those almost inaccessible fastnesses fortified by nature, which in all times have been an asylum for the per-

secuted. Of this kind was a flat-headed mountain called Sinap-Dagh, which caused that portion of the Goths to be called Trapezites, from τράπεζα (trapeza) a table. Another retreat was a wild insulated rock, still known by the name of Mangout-Kalé, the last syllable of the former word retaining the trace of its Gothic origin. Vast masses of broken fragments with grey "leafy walls, where ruin greenly dwells," standing or strewn on the surface and sides of a scarped hill, mark the spot where the Goths, for probably a thousand years, defended themselves against their barbarian invaders. It was the capital of a principality afterwards called Gothie, and in early times had its bishop. In truth, the readiness with which this tribe embraced Christianity, and suffered for it, sets it, in our regard, far above many others, such as the Huns, or Tartars, who were capable only of either remaining pagan, or becoming Mahometan. And this old ruin is full of Christian memorials. The cells and chambers cut into the face of the rock, and reached only by a descent

of giddy steps, formed the retreats of this persecuted race. A chapel, too, may still be traced soccoed out of the solid stone; and, in the time of Professor Pallas half a century ago, it still exhibited Christian symbols and images of saints painted on its walk. At a later period it was occupied by Karaite Jews, whose ruined symagogue and desolate cemetery are frome hard by. But though marriy deserted, the spot froms one of the most interesting monuments in the Crimea, and is unconsciously regarded even by the Turnes with the profoundest veneration.

To the same period party, and in the same purpose, must be assigned those remarkable capities in the rock of likermann, which are so frequently mentioned. The whole side of the hill is pieceed and honeycombed by them. Independent, as you are award, bears from them its name, "the city it cases." Upon the top of the diff sand the roins it has not forcess formerly built by the general of Mithinfaces, and called by him Chemes of Expanding them.

finally, Inkermann; thus registering the rule of its successive lords. It is not improbable that, according to Eastern practice,—evidences of which are found plentifully in Judæa, at Petra, and on the shores of the Red Sea,—the original inhabitants, the Tauroscythians, made their abodes in some of these natural caverns. But the cells, galleries, and chapels which now abound, and bear the marks of considerable artistic design and taste, prove them to have been the resort of persecuted Christians, or of monks during the Byzantine period; both classes of occupants seeking here a safe asylum from a dreaded foe, either the relentless invader, or the still more inexorable world.

But I must return from this digression. Pressed by the fierce Huns, both Goths and Chersonites had recourse to that dangerous expedient so constantly practised by the Crimean inhabitants, of calling in foreign aid. A nation that cannot ordinarily protect itself, is not fit to be one; it is certain, at least, that it must be a slave. They applied (A.D. 548) to Justinian, the Emperor of the East, for protec-

tion. It was indeed but a vain call. The empire was itself weak, oppressed by its provinces, and in no part weaker than in its capital. The Emperor replied only by strengthening the wall at Cherson, building forts at Alushta, and a citadel at Kaffa—remains of the two latter existing at the present day.

It would be tedious and utterly perplexing, even to name the various tribes that successively gained a temporary footing in the Crimea during this period of disorder. The power of the Huns fell with the death of Attila; the horde was broken up and dispersed. Two or three fragments of it, for a century or two, lingered in the Crimea, but these were expelled about the year A.D. 679, by a more considerable tribe named the Chazares, who had already gained renown on the steppes between the Don and the Dnieper, and even as far southward as the iron gates of Derbend, and whose protracted influence in the Crimea deserves a more particular notice.

But in order to understand the part they

played, it is needful to turn for a moment to the fortunes of the small state of Cherson.

That republic, governed by its Protevons, and engaged in a not very extensive commerce, was under the sovereignty of the Emperors of the East. It was the most distant settlement northward-an outward barrier against barbarism-and, therefore, was used as a kind of Botany Bay for state criminals, who were banished to this extreme edge of civilization, where the commonest luxuries of life, corn, wine, and oil, needed to be imported. Here, in A.D. 685, one of the most bloodthirsty and degraded princes of that degraded empire found himself an exile and confined in a monastery. This was Justinian II.. who as signally dishonoured by his crimes the name he bore, as its first owner had rendered it illustrious by his wisdom. Uniting the worst qualities of Charles II., James II. and Judge Jeffries, - dissolute, tyrannical, savage, - he compelled a rebellion by his insupportable cruelties, and was justly seized, and too mercifully sent, with a mutilated face (whence he received the name of Rhinotmete), to cool his blood amid the barren rocks of the Chersonese. The Chersonites were not well pleased with so odious a guest, whose vices seemed to luxuriate the more from his opportunities for tyranny being lopped of. As the exiled monarch was plotting a return to Constantinople, information of his design was given by the Chersonites to the reigning Emperor, and a summary process would have been resorted to, to prevent its execution. But Justinian was on the alert. He made his escape, threw himself into the hands of the Chazares-among whom hospitality was the most sacred of duties -engaged their interest in his behalf, married the daughter of the khan, and returned suddenly to Constantinople, vowing the most bitter vengeance against the unhappy Chersonites. An expedition (A.D. 711) was at once fitted out, Cherson attacked, and men, women, and children brutally massacred. The ship bearing some of the choicer victims back, to feast the vengeance of the tyrant by special tortures, foundered and was lost. A second expedition

was therefore despatched. But, meanwhile, the Chersonites, true to their weak policy, had called in the Chazares to their aid; and, to his honour, the khan came at once to rescue them from the malice of his own son-in-law. The Chersonites withstood the siege directed against their town; they even threatened to carry the war to Constantinople. The wretched monarch, passing from fury to cowardice, pleaded in his own behalf. But it was too late. The small republic sent to Constantinople a popular governor, who was proclaimed Emperor, and the too merciful sword of the executioner ended the life and the crimes of the hateful Justinian.

But the result of this intervention by the Chazares was what might have been expected. They were like the Jutes invited to England—they seized the dominion of those they succoured, and so widely did they extend it, that from this period, for about six centuries, a large part of the peninsula bore the name of Chazaria. It was not until about the year 1300, when the Mogul Tartars fixed their capital at Krim, that the territory assumed the

name of Crimea, which it has borne ever since.

The political state of the Crimea in this, the eighth century, may be thus described. The Chazares occupied the country generally; while certain districts on the coast, such as Cherson, Gothie, and the eastern portion, called Zichie, and occupied by Greek colonists, owned allegiance to the Greek Emperor, but paid, nevertheless, tribute to the khan of Chazaria. But, in A.D. 840, the Emperor Theophilus abolished the republic of Cherson, and erected all the Greek towns on the coast into a province, of which Cherson was the capital, under a prætor sent from the metropolis; so that whatever little independence they had before, then wholly disappeared.

The subjects of the khan of the Chazares were curiously divided, at this period, in their religion, between Paganism, Judaism, and Mahometanism. In their migration, they had come in contact with the two latter forms of faith; and it appears that at one time the converts to Judaism were very numerous. But

in the ninth century (A.D. 858), the khan sent an embassy to the emperor (Michel III.), praying that Christian missionaries might be sent to instruct his people. The fact deserves our notice, not merely on its own account, but because the man selected by the Greek Patriarch for the mission was none other than the celebrated Cyril; who, after having completed this work of mercy, became, with his brother Methodius, the Apostle of Bulgaria and Moravia, manfully resisted the pretensions of Rome, and planted the seed of the Greek Church throughout Russian Europe. Of his labours in the Crimea no record remains, beyond the fact that the whole nation was converted; and at that time-it was, indeed, but a brief spacethe inhabitants of the Crimea were all, what they never were before or have been since, Christians. And therefore I may be pardoned if I take this occasion of pausing for a moment, and shortly sketching the previous fortunes of Christianity in the peninsula.

It is an instructive circumstance that the Christianity of but a very few nations can be traced to the apostolic labours of any individual. In most cases, it seems to have been planted by an invisible hand, and to have grown up, men know not how. And in most nations of the North, where the populations were unsettled, its earlier life was subject to great vicissitudes; its light was wavering, flickering, and sometimes, for a season, wholly extinguished. It was so in the Crimea, just as it was in Great Britain; for the one country in this respect is almost a counterpart of the other. An interesting tradition records that Clement, Bishop of Rome at the end of the first century, was banished by Trajan to Cherson, and that he was confined and doomed to labour in the quarries of Inkermann. When Cyril was sent, as I have related, to the Chazares, the Bishop of Cherson searched for the body, found it, and soon after sent it to the metropolitan church of Kieff, on the Dnieper; and other relics were carried to Rome in A.D. 867. History names the Sarmatians, who possessed a large portion of the Crimea, as being Christians at the end of the second century. Still, it was among the Goths that Christianity took deepest root, and this early and wonderfully. In their invasions, during the third century, these warriors bore away many prisoners from Asia to their northern strongholds, and among them the parents of one who bore afterwards the mixed Greek and Gothic name of Ulphilas. The constancy and sanctity of life of these Christian captives, had already won their rugged masters to But Ulphilas (A.D. 260-320) dethe faith. voted himself from his early youth to the conversion of his new compatriots. Having been well instructed by his parents, he reduced the tongue of the Goths to a written language (a kind of service so often rendered by missionaries), and translated into it the sacred Scriptures. Portions of this wonderful work are still preserved, traced in the Runic character. He became the bishop of that barbarous tribe. In the persecution of Valens and his successors, which soon followed, (A.D. 260-290,) the Crimea had its martyrs; and the settled organization of the Church is proved by the fact that the Bishop of Bosporus sat at the Council

of Nice. But the pagan Huns, like the Saxons in England, overspread the land, driving the Goths to their caves and dens, as the British Christians were forced to the Welsh mountains. The sympathy of the great St. Chrysostom, however, was awakened in their behalf, and he sent over some missionaries to them (circ. A.D. 380), consecrated a new Bishop of Bosporus, and built a church at Constantinople, for service in the Gothic tongue. Subsequently, the invasion of the Chazares, like the ravages of the Danes in Britain, drove in the Christian community, once more, upon its centre; but this time the captives took the captors; a bishop of the Goths, named John, was taken prisoner (A.D. 756); and after a time we find these new lords of the Crimea welcoming evangelic truth from the lips of the saintly Cyril. The lamp then lighted was, indeed, afterwards wholly extinguished by Mahometan fanaticism and persecution; still it must be said that in that land the Gospel has been "preached for a witness."

But to resume the narrative. During the

ninth and tenth centuries, fresh tribes from the North, amongst whom the Russ became prominent, constantly threatened the provinces of the empire on the left bank of the Danube; and they even entered, though with no permanent results, the Crimea. Still, as before, the mountainous ridge of the south, occupied by mixed populations of Greeks and Goths, and now by Chazares, formed a barrier to their incursions; and Cherson, faithful to the Greek Emperor, was soon made the scapegoat of imperial faithlessness. Pressed by these hordes, the Emperors (Basil II. and Constance IX.) had recourse to that worst of expedients, buying them off by gifts and promises. But the promises were not fulfilled; hence a spirit of constant hostility and reprisal was kept alive. The Russian dukedom had devolved, in A.D. 972, upon Vladimir, who has justly obtained the title of the "Solomon," the "Apostle," of Russia. Resolved to right himself, this great chieftain considered where he might most advantageously strike his blow. While he deliberated, other influences were brought to bear upon him,

which gave a direction to his counsels. had observed how rapidly the barbarous hordes improved on shaking off their heathenish superstitions, and especially on their reception of the Christian faith; and he resolved to inquire into its reasonableness and truth. He was at the time in Bulgaria, the inhabitants of which were Mahometans. Some of these immediately pressed upon him the claims of the Arabian prophet. Curiously enough, some of the Chazares, who were near, presented to him, at the same time, the sacred Scriptures of the Jews, whose faith they had embraced. A Greek missionary also set before him, in graphic and touching representations, the sublime verities of the Redeemer. Solicited from all these three quarters, the Grand Duke,-moved partly, perhaps, by political motives,—after consulting his boyards, resolved to send ambassadors to Constantinople, to ascertain what the Christian faith had to offer. The deputies, received honourably by the Emperors, were commended to the Patriarch, who invited them to witness the gorgeous service in the splendid cathedral of St. Sophia. As may

be supposed, the solemn ritual, the rich vestures, the dazzling lights reflected a thousand times from the glittering marbles, the varied and moving chants, and all the ceremonial which was then observed, at once overpowered the rude ambassadors, who represented to their monarch what they deemed the unearthly glory and enchantment of the scene they had witnessed.

Vladimir decided at once on attaching himself to the Greek Church; and considered where, with the greatest dignity to himself, he could receive the rite of Baptism. The recollection of unfulfilled engagements still rested on his mind; and therefore, anxious to signalize his baptism by some ovation, he determined to lay siege first to the unhappy Cherson. In A.D. 988 the harbour of Sebastopol saw the troops and ships of the Russian chieftain enter its straits, and the former moored in front of what is now called the Quarantine bay. But, as if in early augury of its powers of defence, the town offered a more desperate and protracted resistance than he had expected. His besieging works were under-

mined, and his assaults repulsed. After many failures to take the town, when solicited to raise the siege, he vowed that he would stay there three years rather than not succeed. Yet, foiled he must have been, had not a treacherous monk within the city-(his name, reserved for execration, was Anastasius)-shot an arrow into the hostile camp with information of certain underground aqueducts which supplied the town from the east with water. Vladimir lost no time in cutting off these channels, and the town was forced to capitulate. He received the city as a gift of God, celebrated his victory by being baptized and married, and in token of his clemency and thankfulness he at once restored the town to the Emperor. On the heights overhanging the quarantine harbour, among the ruins of Cherson, still stand the remains of the Church of Vladimir, probably marking the very spot where the Russian chieftain received the seal of his Christian adoption. The tribe soon followed the example of their monarch; Kieff was erected into a metropolitan city, and the Russian Church, tracing thus its birth to Cherson, was

for 700 years in filial dependence on the Patriarchate of Constantinople.

The migration westward still continued up to the arrival of the Mogul Tartars in 1237. Following the law that ruled them, the successive families of the Hunnish stock displaced each one the other that had preceded it. Thus, by the tenth century, the Petschénégues had supplanted the Chazares in the Crimea: and they in their turn were forced to yield before the Comanes in the eleventh. Of these tribes little needs to be said; but the latter requires to be named, because, under its rule, that enterprising power of the West, the ambitious Genoa, was first permitted to obtain a footing in the peninsula, where by degrees it acquired that arbitrary and unscrupulous sway which it maintained for 300 years over the towns and principalities of the southern coast.

IV.

THE GENOESE PERIOD.

The spirit of commerce which awoke, as from a slumber, between the eleventh and thirteenth centuries, brought the rising maritime powers of Venice and Genoa into conflict in the Black Sea.

For some centuries before, the west of Europe had been paralysed by the invasions of the barbarians in the north and the Saracens in the south. The lethargy was first broken by the Crusades. By the contact into which the rude warriors of the West were thus brought with the treasures of art, and learning, and ancient splendour, which were found in rich but decaying grandeur at Constantinople, a new sense and new tastes were engendered, which they carried back to their native lands. And hence, on their return, there speedily arose, in all the chief capitals of Europe, a body of citizen-

merchants to supply the wants which then began to be felt.

But the great emporium through which the vast natural riches and works of industry of the East had been supplied to feed the luxury or avarice of the West had been destroyed. That emporium was Alexandria, so celebrated for its wealth, its commerce, its learning, its philosophers, its Christian schools, and its fate. The savage and remorseless invasion of the Saracens in the seventh century had reduced that splendid capital, with its priceless library, to ashes, and with its fall the market of the West was closed, while, under the terror and distraction caused by the Mahometan arms, all commerce languished.

But the adventurous spirit of trade is not easily checked, and it soon opened for itself a communication with the East. That route was across the continent from the Indus to the Oxus, by Carisme and the Caspian to the Black Sea. By this track, up to the period when the passage by the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, the caravans bore their precious stores of silks,

gems, and spices, and discharged them at Tana (Azoff), Trebizond, and Phasis, to be thence transported to Constantinople, which thus took the place of Alexandria in the commerce of Europe.

The Crimea felt early the impulse of this rising spirit, and trade began to develop itself on its southern coast.

Hitherto Cherson had almost monopolized the Asiatic traffic; but from the year A.D. 1070 two formidable rivals sprang up, in the towns of Sudak and Kaffa, which were occupied by Greek adventurers, and threatened to absorb its commerce.

In vain the Chersonites appeal for protection to the Greek Emperor. He was either unwilling or too feeble to grant it. The discontented republic rebelled, and brought more trouble upon itself, until, about the year 1201, not only the Greek traders, but the rival powers of Venice and Genoa, had fairly settled on the shores of the Crimea and the Sea of Azoff. From that time that ancient republic, so full of interest if not of glory, maintained only a lingering exist-

ence, which was closed a hundred and fifty years later.

What a series of glorious recollections, what visions of princely splendour and adventurous energy are summoned before the mind by the mention of those two ambitious and powerful republics, seated like two queens on the Adriatic and Tuscan seas, whose fleets swept the Mediterranean Sea, and left traces of their contest or of their sovereignty on all its shores!

The traffic of the Black Sea now fomented their bitterest quarrels; for the trade of the East was at stake, and they both applied themselves to secure the patronage and protection of the Emperor of the East.

It is impossible to do more than glance at the stirring events that are crowded in the space of the succeeding 300 years. The result of the fourth Crusade, in 1198, in which France and Venice, and they alone, participated, left the throne of Constantinople at the disposal of the Latins. Venice, in strict alliance with that line of monarchs, was at once

put in possession of the port of Azoff, where its factories immediately sprang up. Genoa, with a more daring genius, but a less noble spirit than her rival, founded at the same time [A.D. 1201] a small colony in the noble bay of Kaffa, but with such modest pretensions as to create no apprehension. War had not yet been waged between the two rivals, and although the latter viewed with jealousy the prosperous colonies of Azoff and Krim, yet the trouble she experienced from the plundering habits of the barbarians forbade its breaking out.

The spirit of commerce has I fear, ever proved grasping and unscrapulous. Cruelty lies close by the side of avarice, as harred does of last. And the Genoese soon desperately exemplified this moral law. The Greek Emperors, banished from Constantinople, had their capital at Nicaea, and the Genoese merchants, taught by the example of Venice, aimed at a restoration of the dethroned dynasty. A revolution was soon fomented, by which, in 1261, Michael Palæologus was reinstated in the capital of his prede-

cessors. The rival of Venice now commanded the authority of the emperor, and quickly and unsparingly she used it.

At Pera, a suburb of Constantinople, to the north of the Golden Horn, whose curved bay, laden with the riches of the world, suggested the allusion to the symbolical horn of plenty, the Genoese raised their factories and houses of trade. These they shortly afterwards enlarged and fortified, till it became a question, whether the Genoese or Greeks were to be masters of Constantinople.

The same spirit of usurpation manifested itself towards the ruler of the Crimea. He was a Mahometan, and had granted permission to the Soudan of Egypt to share in the traffic of the Christian slaves of Circassia, to recruit his troop of Mamelukes. The Genoese claimed the sole right of this unholy traffic, and hostilities commenced in consequence.

Then, too, Kaffa rose to extraordinary magnificence. The Tartars smiled at the ramparts, and batteries, and towers, which they saw belting the town, and called them the

strangers' folly. There was meaning in those walls notwithstanding, as they soon found.

At the bottom of the splendid bay, opening to the south-east, backed by commanding hills, with a roadstead in which 100 vessels could ride in safety, the city itself rose bright with decorated houses, terraces, and Italian gardens. It was called the "Lesser Constantinople,"the second "Genoa the Proud." It was in fact a Genoese principality, though nominally tributary to the Tartar khans. In the pride of wealth, a Genoese merchant insults a Tartar in the market; the insult is resented with a blow; in an instant the Damascus blade is drawn and the Tartar slain. A tumult and a combat ensue, many Tartars are massacred, and the Genoese are ordered (A.D. 1343) by the khan to evacuate the town and port. They simply refuse, and defy their liege lords. Kaffa is besieged, but in vain. The earthen ramparts and stone walls are found to be not wholly a vast folly. The Genoese seize the occasion to treat the country as that of an enemy. They ravage the coasts, make descents on its

ports, Alushta and Sudak, and forbid the navigation of the seas to foreign vessels. The Genoese commandant, Boccanegra, condescends to accept terms from the khan, Djanibeg, and for the moment peace is restored.

"The Adriatic for the Venetians, the Black Sea for the Genoese," is now openly proclaimed by the latter; and they proceed to enforce the ambitious pretension. Some Venetian vessels are seized and confiscated. (A.D. 1344.) Enlarged territory is demanded at Pera, and refused by the Emperor Cantacuzene. Immediately the faubourg is fired, the Byzantine vessels are captured, and the shores of the Sea of Marmora wasted by these insolent merchants. Venice is summoned to the Emperor's aid,and then was fought, (1352,) under the walls of Constantinople, that famous naval battle, which set Genoa on the pinnacle of its greatness in the Black Sea. Well might the great historian, to whose pages I must refer you for a brilliant narrative of the conflict, remark on the issue, "The Roman Empire might soon

¹ Gibbon, ch. xiii.

have sunk into a province of Genoa, if the ambition of the republic had not been checked by the ruin of her freedom and naval power."-Her power at home was on the wane. Still for the moment success only increased her pride. On her demand, no Venetian galley was permitted in the Black Sea: no vessel was allowed to visit Cherson: the flourishing town of Sudak. the emporium of Greek merchants, and capital of the province of Soldava, was attacked and taken 1363); the principality of Gothie was acquired by treaty with the Tartars 1380), who had cruelly persecuted its inhabitants; the right of veto on the election of any khan was extorted: Latin bishops were placed at Sudak and Kaffa, in insulting defiance of the Greek Emperor; and (1433) Balaclava not long after was added to her possessions.

I have rapidly sketched a period of 250 years; and now the supremacy of Genoa began to pass away. The war of Chioggia with Venice (1381)—for the very interesting account of which I refer you to another eminent historian.

¹ Hallam's Middle Ages, ch. iii. part 2.

fixed the decline of her power; and the moment was at hand when, in stern retribution, all her possessions in the Crimea were to be wrested from her. But as that catastrophe produced a revolution in the peninsula, I must gather up the thread of its internal history, before relating the details of that event.

I have already spoken of the tribe of Comanes as occupants of the Crimea, which they retained till the year 1227. It appears that they were neither oppressive nor jealous in the exercise of their sovereignty over the provinces on the coast. But ten years later (1237), a fresh swarm, part of the famous Golden Horde, crossed the Volga and the Don, under Bathi, the grandson of the renowned Zinghis Khan, the chief of the Mogul Tartars. These strangers were of a different metal. In addition to all their Tartar fierceness and barbarous habits, they had acquired the military fanaticism and fatalistic energy with which the reception of the Mahometan faith inspires its votaries. They ravaged the country of the Cossacks, Little Tartary, occupied by the tribe of Kiptschak,



and Poland, and "the Latin world was darkened by this cloud of savage hostility." The sovereignty of the peninsula was, however, disputed by a large influx of the tribe of Kiptschak, just mentioned, who held an independent dominion in it for 200 years. The inhabitants of the coast were distributed into three principalities. Cherson, after above 1800 years' duration, having disappeared, Inkermann, with the name of Doros, became the capital of Theodorie: the Greek town of Sudak was the metropolis of Soldaya; and Mangout of Gothie. The fanatic intolerance of these new barbarians was impatient of the Christians of the south. Kaffa and Sudak could defend themselves, but upon the Goths of Theodorie and Gothie persecution fell with a long and lingering torture. It was but in mockery that their princes were ostensibly left to them. They were forced, at the point of the sword, to conform to the laws and accept the creed of the Koran. This was a death-blow to the Goths, the most ancient and the most noble of those tribes which laid the foundations of the modern kingdoms in Europe.

Justice has not yet been done to the history of this tribe in the Crimea, traces of whose power are preserved in the ruins of Mangout, and, it is said, in some of the words of the southern Tartar tongue. But they now disappeared, the last remnant in Europe of that powerful race which overthrew the Western Empire and made the East to tremble. After overrunning Asia, they became the masters of Italy, founded the throne of Spain, and possessed themselves of some of the fairest provinces of France. It is remarkable that they never founded a distinct kingdom; but their monuments have survived their material power. These are found in many of the laws and customs of European nations, and especially in that feudal system which is still so closely intertwined with our civil institutions, and is the offspring of their genius. They were the earliest of those migratory races to embrace Christianity, and theirs was the first language beyond the pale of the classic tongues into which the Sacred Scriptures were translated. Without attributing to their conceptions that magnificent ecclesiastical architecture which

bears their name, the very assignment of that title bears testimony to the depth and richness of the religious sentiment with which they were supposed to be imbued. And it was a shame to Genoa, and suggests to us how her commercial avarice must have eaten out of her every nobler impulse and more generous sympathy, when with her proud galleys, and armed forts, and munitions of war, she sat by unmoved, while the remnant of that great nation, peaceable. civilized, Christian, was persecuted by its Mahometan invaders, and doomed either to apostasy or extermination; nay more, when in their distress she bargained for the territory of Gothie. and acquired the vineyard of Naboth from the hands of Jezebel.

And there, on the edge of Europe, we quit the last footprints of the Goths: we leave their inheritance in the possession of the Genoese, and proceed shortly to trace the speedy retribution which overtook these their ungenerous neighbours.

The power of the Genoese was beginning visibly to fail; while their overbearing conduct

towards the Tartars and other occupants of the Crimea kept them in a state of nearly constant hostility. But domestic discord weakened the Moguls, and, at the close of the fourteenth century (1370), the ingratitude of Toctamish, the sovereign prince of Kiptschak, whose rule extended over the Crimea and the Ukraine, drew upon him the terrible vengeance of Timur or Tamerlane.

The Crimea did not escape the fury of the storm. On Timur's return from routing his enemy, deputies from Venice and Genoa hastened to propitiate the conqueror on the banks of the Don, and to avert any nearer approach to their settlements. But perhaps the awakened curiosity of the great chieftain led him to visit Azoff, which he speedily destroyed and pillaged. (A. D. 1395.) Passing on to Kaffa, he assaulted the town by sea and land. But the valour of the Genoese governor, Zoaglio, (and want of daring and resolution were never among the faults of the republic,) saved the town, and the invader was forced to retire.

With the death of Toctamish the sovereignty

of the Crimea passed from his tribe, and the grandson of Timur was placed on its precarious throne. A period of conflict and confusion ensued, which it is neither easy nor necessary to elucidate, until, in 1423, we find the sovereign rule conferred upon a Mogul prince, a descendant of the royal house of Zinghis Khan, by whose race it was uninterruptedly held, down to the time of its final overthrow by the Empress Catharine of Russia.

The name of this prince was Devlet Guerai; the latter of these names being the distinguishing title of the Khans of the Crimea for all succeeding generations, and deriving its origin from a soubriquet given to this first prince from his constant repetition of the word "guerai," which means, in Lithuanian, "well;" in the same manner as the French in the Polynesian islands have acquired the name of "Oui-ouis," from their frequent reiteration of that affirmative monosyllable.

The capital of the khans at this period was at the town of Krim, not far from Kaffa, and the peninsula thenceforward received the name of Krimea. The neighbourhood of the Genoese caused the selection of the place; and it is a proof of the power of those merchant-princes, that the khans found it their interest to secure their favour, and to protect their trade. Yet this did not ensure peace; on the contrary, several sanguinary and barbarous conflicts took place; and a blackened cave, strewn with human bones and skulls, is now shown on the precipitous sides of the highest mountain, called Tchatir Dagh (the Tent mountain),—the cave of Foul Kouba,1—in which a party of Genoese were smoked to death. In a war with Devlet Guerai, in 1461, the son of that khan was taken prisoner, kept as a hostage, and carefully educated. Eight years after, on the death of his father. he mounted the throne, when we hear of him again.

But, meanwhile, great events had occurred, which speedily changed the whole fortunes of the Crimea.

In 1453 the catastrophe, which had been so long anticipated and dreaded, had taken place.

^{*} Oliphant. Russian Shores of the Black Sea, p. 224.

The great and ambitious Mohammed II. had attacked and taken the ancient seat of the Cæsars—Constantinople. The Crescent supplanted the Cross on St. Sophia. That event is related with such eloquence by the great historian, whose pages are so charming, yet so painful, to read, that I can do no more than refer you to them for the narrative.

One circumstance must be mentioned. Justiniani, the Governor of the Genoese, who still held Pera, defended that part of the city heroically. He was desperately wounded, the Emperor Constantine was killed, and the city fell. The proud conqueror, flushed with the capture of two capitals, had already taken possession of the Byzantine throne, when the Genoese presumptuously declared war against him. It was mere madness, for so unequal were they to their own defence in the Black Sea, that they were shortly compelled to mortgage their possessions at Kaffa, and their other settlements, to a famous commercial company of those days, somewhat resembling our East India Company, and called the Bank of St. George; and at the

very same time the republic, through its reverses at home, had been obliged to place itself under the protection of the Duke of Milan. The challenge, therefore, might have passed unnoticed; but, at this conjuncture, the oppressions and violence of the Genoese had raised up against them a conspiracy among the Mogul Tartars in the Crimea. A contest concerning the election of a prefect of Kaffa, from whom the Genoese governor had withheld his confirmation, caused the league to be formed. The khan, Mengély Guerai, son of the last prince, and now (1475) elevated unjustly to the throne by the aid of the Genoese, protected his former guardians, and fell under the odium of his subjects. Deputies from the Tartar Assembly,-for they still had a form of convention called the "Courollai," - were sent to solicit the interference of Mohammed, and to offer him the kingdom. It chanced that a fleet of the Sultan was lying at that moment in the harbour, equipped to invade the island of Candia; but its destination was soon changed. Twenty thousand chosen troops under Achmet Pasha at once

appeared before Kaffa. The siege was not long. An Armenian happened to be the Governor, and he traitorously surrendered the city of his guardianship to the enemy. It was a dastardly act, and met its due recompense. Notwithstanding its surrender, the city was given over to pillage, and unmerited vengeance wreaked upon all its inhabitants. The people were disarmed, and a heavy fine of 20,000 ducats exacted. Forty thousand Genoese were sent to Constantinople, which was still half a desert; all the slaves were apportioned to the Sultan, and the natives of the place condemned to redeem themselves. To deepen the degradation, 1,500 children were selected, to swell the number of victims in the Seraglio. All the larger houses, the forts, the palaces, churches the most majestic, religious establishments of considerable extent, were razed to the ground, and ships laden with spoil returned to Constantinople.

The Armenians, headed by the traitor Squarciafico, were reserved for a crowning immolation. Eight days after the surrender of the town they were invited to a sumptuous banquet; on retiring from which, down a flight of steps, they were one by one despatched by armed executioners; the traitor was reserved, and transported to Constantinople for more signal and public execution.

Thus fell Kaffa, so rich and beautiful as to be compared to its parent city in the West, and the emporium of Genoese commerce for nearly three centuries. The city was wholly destroyed. It is said that Mohammed wished afterwards to revive its commerce; but, with the Genoese, the spirit that enriched it departed. It was never restored; and out of the forty-four thousand houses the city is said to have contained, less than fifty remained at the beginning of this century.'

The khan Mengély Guerai was deported to Constantinople with the Genoese. He was a man of a perfidious and cruel spirit, and fit only to be the tool of a tyrant: so he was spared, reinstated as khan, but only as a vassal of the Porte, and sent back to the Crimea to complete the work of subjugation and devastation. The

¹ Clarke's Travels.

next three years presented only a sickening detail of successive plunderings and murders executed by this wretched barbarian, in his own territory, and upon his own subjects. Even the Genoese, to whom he owed his throne, were not spared. The ancient Krim, the capital of his predecessors, was signalized by his butcheries. The prosperous town of Sudak, with its one hundred churches, was reduced. Cherson was hardly more than a ruin; but Balaclava and Inkermann were seized and destroyed. Kertch, occupied by a few Circassians, fell an easy prey: but a nobler and more courageous resistance was encountered at Mangout Kalé, which had been for centuries the asylum of independence; for the old spirit of the Goths, and the despair of a brave people, animated the Genoese who had taken refuge on its heights. fastness was besieged; but here, too, at last the Governor proved a traitor; the stronghold was surrendered, and all the Genoese were massacred. A heap of frowning ruins on an impregnable height mark the spot.

A.D. 1478. The Crimea was now reduced;

its harbours were forsaken, and its maritime towns fell into decay. For three hundred years the Black Sea was closed by the Porte against the commerce of the West. During that period what may more strictly be called the kingdom of the Crimea lasted, under the Khans of Little Tartary, and a short sketch of this dynasty will conclude the subject.

V.

KHANS OF THE CRIMEA, OR LITTLE TARTARY.

A.D. 1478. Mengély Guerai had sworn fealty to the Porte on resuming the throne of the Crimea. It was provided in the compact with Mohammed II., that the khans should be chosen exclusively from among the descendants of Zinghis Khan, which was regarded as a sacred principle of government by the Mogul Tartars. There were, of course, several branches in this descent, so that the Porte was not hampered by a too limited choice when it had purposes of its

own to carry into effect; still the principle was rigidly observed.

The excessive cruelties of Mengély Guerai had depopulated the Crimea to such an extent, that he was obliged to make war on the neighbouring tribe of Nogay Tartars, occupying the steppe to the north of the peninsula, and to transplant large numbers of them into his own territory. It is this tribe that forms the Tartar population of the Crimea at the present time. They seem to be but a poor thriftless race of the degenerate Tartar stamp, and even to have deteriorated from their former state. They are still nomads on the steppe, wanderers, living in rudely-constructed huts in the summer, in underground holes during the winter; tending their flocks; still given to plunder; for, at the recent valiant repulse of the Russians by the Turks at Eupatoria, you may perhaps have noticed that some of the Tartars flocked, after the engagement, to the scene of strife, stripping the dead, and gratifying their old ineradicable love of horseflesh.

The Moguls soon changed the seat of their

government from Krim,-for no Genoese, no commerce any longer remained to stimulate either their jealousy or their avarice, -to Baktchiserai, "the Palace of Gardens," a beautiful spot situated in a sequestered dell at the northern base of the mountainous ridge, and about twenty miles north-east of Sebastopol. Here for three centuries they held their court, though with but little state or even dignity. The Seraglio, or palace, consisting of a large group of buildings, was extensive but very irregular; still it is even now striking to the stranger from its "picturesque style of architecture, its carving and gilding, its Arabic and Turkish inscriptions, and fountains of beautiful water in every court." 1 On one side of the entrance square were the apartments of the khan, of one story high, backed by gardens; on the opposite side, a Mosque with its two regal minarets, and beautiful cemetery; near this, again, the Hall of Justice, with an imposing dome; adjoining to which was a small apartment, accessible to the khan alone, in which he was able, unobserved, to listen to

¹ Heber's MS. Journal, quoted in Clarke's Travels.

the proceedings in Court; and woe to the Cadi-lesker who perverted judgment, or spared the guilty. At the further end of the court, in a garden, surrounded by a high wall, was the Harem, consisting of a few plain and ill-furnished apartments, but with windows screened and trellised with the usual oriental jealousy.

The government of the khans resembled that of the Porte, under which they held. It was rather a monarchy than a despotism strictly so called, being tempered by a perilous responsibility to a set of turbulent nobles or retainers, who were not slow to make their will felt. It resembled, in this respect, the government of Cromwell, awed and threatened by his fanatic soldiery; it had, too, its counterpart in the Sultan's rule, curbed by his Janissaries; and is paralleled even in the present tyranny of the Czar, a despotism "rectified," as has been said, "by assassination." Each khan had his Mufti, or Patriarch; his Vizier, or Prime Minister; his Cadi-lesker, or Chief Justice; his Kalga, or Chancellor, whose residence was at Akmetchet,

now Simpheropol; his Divan, or General Council. His state could be but poor, as he had no fixed revenue; and his ordinary resources were supplied from the booty taken in war, and from lands belonging to the Crown; but no tribute was exacted. When he went to war, each division of villages (Kadilik) was obliged to provide its contingent of horse and armed soldiers, as was the case in other countries under the feudal régime. In one respect the administration of the khans was distinguished above that of the Sultan, and much more above that of the Czar; viz. in the promptitude and strict equity with which justice was dealt to all; thus perpetuating the character given by Homer to their Scythian ancestors, as being "feeders upon mares' milk, the most just of men." Each district had a Kadi, or judge, from whom appeal lay to the Divan; and it speaks rather perhaps for the summariness than the mildness with which the laws were enforced, that no such thing as a prison was found in the peninsula.

That government, its monarchy, and its court, have now ceased to be, never to be

revived, and therefore this passing record of their existence may be pardoned.

It would be impossible to give a detailed sketch of the history and fortunes of the kingdom of Little Tartary in any moderate limits. In truth it must be owned that the Krim Tartars were a very troublesome marauding set, living on plunder, a terror to the neighbouring Poles and Russians, and sometimes mere hirelings to one or the other, and even to the Swedes, under Charles XII. When, in 1694, the Porte issued an order forbidding their freebooting habits, the inhabitants were nearly starved to death. They had no commerce, were almost incapable of really settled life, and were averse, as all Tartars ever were, and perhaps will be, to agriculture; so that their only resource was in the hazards and allurements of war. We can understand that they were considered a social nuisance.

Hence during the 260 years that preceded their fall (A.D. 1520—1780), the Khans of the Crimea took a part in all the agitating wars that desolated Central Europe.

The position held by each of the nations engaged in those conflicts may thus be compendiously summed up.

The conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, had let the Mahometans loose on Europe. Previous to that time, a permanent check had been given to the Saracens in the south; the Poles, Russians, and Hungarians presented a barrier to the Mahometan Tartars in the north; and the Byzantine capital formed the great outwork and rampart against the Turks in the centre. But when this fell, and the power of the Ottoman empire was firmly established in that capital, the keystone of European and Asiatic dominion, a feeling of terror penetrated the western kingdoms of Europe. To stem this torrent of fanatic tyranny was the glorious work of Austria, aided by her allies. At the battle of Lepanto, an Austrian commander effectually curbed the naval power of the Turks, in 1571; and by the two magnanimous defences of Vienna in 1529 and 1683, -at the latter of which the valiant service of John Sobieski, in relieving the Austrian capital, gained for him the title of "the Saviour of Europe,"—this infidel power was finally restrained, by land, within its own limits. Thus, then, Turkey and Austria, afterwards Russia, and then Sweden, which entered the field, were struggling for ascendancy; the Poles were struggling for existence; the Tartars and Cossacks were struggling for booty. Looking generally at the result of these conflicts, we may say that Austria maintained her dominion; Poland was, after a time, miserably partitioned; the Cossacks and Tartars were absorbed; the Ottoman empire gradually declined, and Russia as regularly grew, till it reached its present gigantic proportions.

In this great settling down of nations whose normal state was war, the Tartar khans, sometimes in aid of their liege lord the Sultan, sometimes on their own account, took part in every possible fray. At one time they were at war with the Cossacks; then, and very constantly, with the Poles; twice they joined the Sultan against Austria, once at the last siege of Vienna; but uniformly, with one exception,

they found their natural, almost necessary, enemies in the Russians. In thirty-one years -from 1577 to 1608-they thrice invaded that empire; and, in the same period, once besieged, and once utterly destroyed, Moscow. But the tide soon turned upon them. Under the constructive genius of Peter the Great, the Russian empire multiplied and consolidated its power, and thenceforward it bore down upon the south with irresistible force. From that time the annexation of the Crimea became the prominent object and unswerving purpose of its princes; four times in forty years, under its two Empresses,1 the unhappy country was overrun and devastated by its armies, until it sank under the combined effects of desertion, fraud, and violence, to which I shall have to refer.

It must be owned that this statement places the Tartars and their khans in an unfavourable light. They appear as an unsettled marauding nation, with no domestic resources, or symptoms of progress. They were, indeed, essentially

¹ 1736, 1737, under the Empress Anne; 1771, 1777, under Catharine II.

warlike; and unsettled they could not but be, when we consider the capricious tyranny with which the Sultan exercised the dangerous privilege which had been reserved to him, of nominating the khan. For see the result.

During the three hundred years that the Crimea was subject to this control, i.e. from 1478—1783, there were forty khans, whose average reign was therefore only seven and a-half years; of those forty, twenty-four were deposed, several of them more than once, from some intrigue or caprice; three others abdicated; five died a violent death; and nine only died on the throne. It could not be, therefore, but that a spirit of reckless adventure, and of intrigue, should be generated by such a disjointed, uncertain rule, while internal growth and natural organic development were impossible.

Yet the khans were not mere adventurous soldiers, leaders of a barbarous horde. Far from it; many of them were great and noble characters, and deserving of a better fortune.

For example: Gazi Guerai, the tenth khan, who reigned from 1587 to 1608, had in his early

youth been confined a prisoner in Persia, which was to the Turks what Athens was to the Greeks, the seat of learning, distinguished by its philosophers, its arts, its libraries. Like Frederick the Great in subsequent times, the young prince turned his captivity into an occasion of mental discipline, and he left his retreat skilled in all Oriental learning, a poet, and a musician. He is described as just, moderate, generous, and observant of law; and was disposed to foster amongst his subjects the arts and the humanizing influences of peace. But the times were too strong for him. He was driven to war, partly by invasion, partly by the Porte. After chasing a troublesome neighbour from the Ukraine, he besieged Moscow, and then aided the Porte against Rodolph the German Emperor; yet he showed himself as great in war as he might have been beneficent in peace.

Let me take another instance, that of the greatest of all the khans, Selim Guerai, the twentieth of his race, whose reign extended from 1671 to 1704, so that he was contemporary with

Peter the Great of Russia. So eminent were his abilities, and so keen the jealousy with which he was consequently pursued by the ministers and sycophants of Mohammed IV., that he was deposed three times, abdicated once, and was restored to the throne four times. Yet such was his philosophy, or such the effect of his fatalistic creed, that he bore these caprices of fortune with complete composure, and, what is more, never sought to retaliate upon his enemies. He was a consummate general, a politician of rare keensightedness and tact, firm of purpose, singularly tender, and deeply reli-His first act was to defeat the Poles in a decisive engagement in 1672; and afterwards he was chosen to take part in the siege of Vienna, when he had to yield to the great generalship of John Sobieski. At a later period (1691), in the language of a Russian,1 and therefore no favourable, writer, "he defeated, in a single campaign, the Austrians, the Poles, and the Russians, saved the standard of religion, and re-established

¹ Striencewitz, Archbishop of Mohileff, quoted by Reuilly, "Histoire de la Crimée."

the tottering throne of the Ottoman empire." In their gratitude and devotion, the Janissaries conspired against the Sultan, and offered Selim the throne of Constantinople; but, true to his oath, the khan firmly refused to accept the prize of treason, and himself quelled the insurrection that had broken out. On the Sultan's offering him any recompense he would name, he asked only permission to make the pilgrimage to the Prophet's tomb at Mecca, a religious service forbidden hitherto to the khans from political jealousy. Having accomplished the journey, he received the title of Hadji, or Saint, which belongs to Mahometans who have performed that meritorious journey. So great was his renown, that the Crimean nobles vowed they would recognise none but his descendants (while any such remained) as their monarch; and this privilege was confirmed to his family by the Porte.

Towards the end of his life his second son rebelled against him, and, raising the standard of war, fled to Circassia. He was seized, and brought back, according to Tartar law, to immediate and ignominious death. On his coming into his father's presence, the old man embraced him tenderly in his arms, and so melted the rebellious temper of his son as to win him back to lasting obedience. This same monarch it was, who, when the eyes of the Sultan Mustapha were fatally closed to the aggressive schemes of Russia, warned him of them, protested against the peace of Carlowitz, and counselled a renewal of the war. When questioned as to the grounds of his apprehensions, he shrewdly replied, that he noticed that Peter was very carefully educating his people; that he had introduced the German régime and tactics into his army; and that he was constructing a fleet at Voronej, on the Don; and that these things disquieted him. He was naturally rewarded for his ill-omened sagacity by being at once deposed.

There are those who doubt whether the Tartars are capable of civilization, and of a settled form of government. It may be, that races of men, like individuals, are incapable of passing at one step from the habits of barbarism to the arts, and industries, and cultivation of

civilized life, and that their physical constitution would break down under the attempt to force such a change upon them. Still we cannot but feel a conviction, that where the elements of civilized life, of great ability of rule, of farsighted policy, of taste for the arts of peace, are found in monarchs such as those here instanced, (and others might be named,) there must be at least the possibility of a civilized community in their subjects. Yet, at the same time, we cannot but ask, What could a country do, whose rulers were subject to such a tyrannous caprice as these khans suffered at the hands of the degraded Sultans?

But I now hasten to conclude. Under the plea of checking the turbulence of the Tartars, the Empress Anne, in 1736, despatched Marshal Munich with a vast army to invade the Crimea; the fortifications of Perecop, though bravely defended, were forced; villages were given to the flames, and Baktchi-serai remorselessly plundered. The failure of provisions compelled the Russians to retreat: yet, again, the next year, a second army, under Marshal Lascy, passed



down the narrow tongue of Arabat (a well-known entrance into the Crimea, of which, however, a strange ignorance seems recently to have been evinced), and desolated the southern district unavenged.

The Porte was now too weak, or too utterly selfish to stand by its faithful vassal, and the end drew nigh.

The same year that Selim Guerai (the thirty-· ninth khan and third of that name) came to the throne (A.D. 1771), two Russian armies were poured upon the south. The one threatened Turkey from Moldavia; the other, under Prince Dolgorouki, surnamed the Crimean, entered the peninsula in two divisions, by the isthmus of Perecop and by the tongue of Arabat, thus circumventing and paralysing the devoted kingdom. Arabat and Kaffa were taken; Kertch, and Balaclava, and Belbec, and Kosloff (now Eupatoria) were surrendered; and Selim's submission was accepted on the condition of his two sons being sent as hostages to St. Petersburg. One of these two sons was Sahim Guerai.

It was now but a question of time and perfidy. A pretence was soon found for deposing the father, and placing his son Sahim on the throne. In vain the Porte remonstrated that its prerogative was invaded, and espoused the cause of the deposed khan, who had fled to Constantinople. Russia desired nothing better than this, and defended her own nominee.

The war which followed, and which only had the effect of weakening the Porte and further distracting the Crimea, was brought to a close by the Treaty of Kainardji in 1774, by which Selim was temporarily replaced; the independence of the Crimea declared (that is, the hold of the Porte upon it loosened); the captured (but not the ceded) places were restored; and certain ceremonial privileges were reserved to the Porte.

The story of intrigue and cruelty that followed almost exceeds belief, and surpasses the power to unravel all its intricacies. But thus it is told. An insurrection is fomented by which Selim is expelled, and his son Sahim, the *protégé* of Catharine, is once again set upon the throne.

Was he a traitor to his country, or a weak, vain-glorious sycophant, or a stone-blind dupe? It is hard to determine; but under the influence of Russian emissaries ever at his side, he is encouraged to conform to European manners and customs; and his nobles, with burning indignation, see their weak khan, the descendant of the great Zinghis, ape the dress of European courts, discard his horse and ride in a carriage, sit at his meals, with his table adorned with plate and his apartment furnished with tables and chairs (still preserved in the seraglio); they see troops disciplined after the Russian model, and everything likely to shock the prejudices of a Tartar and a Mahometan ostentatiously paraded.

Perhaps the same Russian influence was scarcely needed to foment an insurrection. Still emissaries were at work to watch their plot to its end. On a retired mountain, with a flat summit, surrounded by precipices so perpendicular that it resembled a stupendous fortress, the proud nobles, or mirzas, hold their secret meetings, amidst the silence and solitude of nature. They raise the standard of revolt against the khan,

who flies at once from Kaffa, where he had fixed his residence, to Asia (A.D. 1777), and invokes the aid of Russia. Waiting for the signal, the troops pour into the Crimea, slay 7,000 Turks who had come to the aid of the nobles, near Balaclava, and seize that village and fortress, and Kaffa.

And now succeeds a tale of infamy which I must give in the words of the traveller Clarke, who was on the spot while the events were fresh in the memory of men:—

"The khan returned to Karasu-bazaar, where the Russian army was encamped; and there, in the presence of Russian troops, was persuaded to order his nobles to be stoned to death; his pretended allies feasting their eyes with the slaughter of men whom they had first induced to rebel against their sovereign, and afterwards caused to be butchered for having complied with their desires. Thus the deluded prince, and his still more deluded subjects, alike duped by designing miscreants, whom they had allowed to take possession of their country, began at last to open their eyes, and endeavoured to rid

themselves of an alliance so fatal in its consequences. But it was too late. The khan was himself prisoner in the very centre of the Russian army."

The proposal was then made to him that he should abdicate: but he had spirit enough to refuse. Then he was tempted by bribes to live in splendour at St. Petersburg, and hold his mimic court in that capital. This, too, he scorned. No alternative remained, but to take him as a prisoner to Kaluga, a wretched hamlet on the Oka, and detain him there as a pensioner on the Russian Court. But no pension being paid, in his despair, and perhaps remorse, the unhappy monarch begged that he might at least be sent to Turkey, judging that, merciless as that Court was to its enemies, he might find it less merciless than Russia. The request was granted; he was received ungraciously by the Porte, and banished to Rhodes, whither the silken cord was shortly sent to him as a special favour, and he was strangled.

Thus passed the Crimea into the dominion of Russia, and the last relic was destroyed of the Mogul power, a dynasty, the most extended that the world ever saw, which ruled from the Japan Sea along the banks of the Amoor, the Ganges, and the Irtish, to the plains watered by the Danube, and the remains of whose magnificence and power are enduring objects of astonishment and admiration.

Selim, the rival khan, fled, with all the remaining nobles, to Circassia, and there joining that brave, unyielding people, kept alive the spirit of hatred towards the Russian domination. One member of the princely family of Guerai lingered behind, whose son still lives in great retirement at Akmetchet, or Simpheropol. At one time he visited England, and is now married to an English lady. The children of this last of the Guerais are brought up as Protestants, and the daughter, it is said, is married to a foreign gentleman, of the same persuasion, in the Russian service.¹

What a text is this for a sermon on the mutability of fortune, when we contemplate in this Christian female in her domestic privacy,

¹ Koch's Crimea.

the lineal descendant of the mighty Zinghis Khan, the lord of Asia, and whose family were the terror of Christendom!

With very different feelings, yet with the same lesson before us, we may regard the subsequent fate of the Crimea. It was overrun by Russians. By the order of Catharine, 75,000 Armenians and Christians were expelled, in order to ensure its perfect subjection. This odious work of extermination was entrusted to the ruthless Suwarroff, and the wretched exiles, led into the steppe on the west of the Sea of Azoff, there perished miserably of cold, and destitution, and hunger.

In 1787, the Empress of Russia, the capable but dissolute Catharine, the author of all this scene of woe, made a progress to inspect this newly-acquired territory, which was represented to her as a very garden, the choicest of all her vast possessions. It could have been but little more than a desert; but her odious minion Potemkin, the executor of all her previous designs, and governor of the province, received her; and to flatter his royal mistress, he caused

a house to be erected for her at every point where she nightly stopped, and temporary villages to be erected along the road where her procession passed. It is in this manner that the monarchs of that great empire have been frequently blinded by adulation, in regard both to their own real character, and to the condition of their dominions.

The Crimea was to be amalgamated with Russia. Hence the old names were superseded by others reviving the association of the old Greek Empire. The imposing title of Sebastopol displaced the name of Achtiar. Simpheropol, which may mean either the "useful" or the "double" city, took the place of Akmetchet, and hither the capital was removed from the old and romantic Baktchi-serai. Cherson was revived at the mouth of the Dnieper, and Eupatoria, by a strange geographical error, restored at Kosloff. But this was not the worst work of demolition that was executed. All that was ancient was doomed and destroyed. Kertch and Kaffa especially were scenes of worse than Vandal devastation. Beautiful mosques and

minarets; public fountains and aqueducts, the pride and the great glory of the Moslem; public edifices, however imposing and sacred, were overthrown; trees were cut down, tombs rifled, the relics of the dead cast abroad, swine fed out of coffins, and the monuments of antiquity annihilated.

The traveller Clarke, in 1800, watched the rude Russian soldiery pulling down the principal minaret at Kaffa; and while the imperturbable Turks were breathing deep and bitter imprecations on the enemies of the Prophet, even a Greek turned and muttered, in scorn and indignation, Σκύθαι (Barbarians)!

But graver thoughts than those of antiquarian sentiment, or even of human sympathy, now invest the Crimea. It has played important parts in the world's history, but none so critical as that which it will have hereafter to discharge. For upon that shore is to be determined the question, in which all civilization is interested, whether it is to be an outwork, a bastion, a fortress of attack and aggression to Russia,—or whether it is to remain, as it has ever been, and

has suffered in being, one prominent point in that long barrier of protection which Divine Providence has erected to defend the gentler refinements of the South from the ruthless violence of the North.

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